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HARCOURT, BRACE AND COMPANY—New York 17—Chicago 1

Editor's Page

CHRISTMAS, 1952

IT IS a cold evening in late October, and a furious northwest gale, roaring in from the sea, lashes before it the first traces of the season's snow. One would not, by deliberate choice, select either the time or the place to project his thoughts into the coming holidays—Thanksgiving, when we pause for a moment to express our gratitude for our blessings; Christmas, when we dream momentarily of the kind of world the sons of men may yet live to share; New Year's Day, when we try to wipe the slate clean and start afresh with high resolve to make a better job of this business of living. None of these holidays seems half as real as the gusts of wind that shake the house. And when our thoughts turn to the larger world, torn and troubled by the storms of wrath that twist men's souls, the Christmas message of peace on earth seems faint and far away.

We know that the gale will quickly pass. If we could be as sure that men and nations would find the wisdom and courage to rise victorious above the error and evil that now engulf them, life would have new meaning.

Perhaps this is the lesson we should learn as the Christmas season draws near. We live by faith. The dreams of today become the realities of tomorrow. And if our faith is strong enough, how can the dreams be denied?

ON THE desk before us lies a book with a bright red jacket on which, in large white letters, is the title, *A Declaration of Faith*.¹ This is Herbert Agar's latest book. In it, with strength and vigor, he elaborates the argument we have here briefly summarized. "Without faith and unity," he writes in the Preface, "we shall suffer still more class hatreds, more wars of self-extermination, dwindling humanity and mounting fear. We shall soon lack the strength to help anybody, even ourselves. So we can say humbly that upon our efforts to possess our own souls may depend the well-being or the ruin of man. The West has the resources and the knowledge,

if she can find the inner strength to check the spreading decay.

Christmas week might be a fitting time to read this volume, in which, appropriately enough, the author reviews the past, looks critically at the present, and raises some highly pertinent questions about the future. The book makes meaty reading, and good reading. Every sentence is crisp and active; every paragraph invites quotation; every page presents provocative issues. You may not agree with all of the author's conclusions, but you will probably read the book to the end. And when you put it down you will think again and again about what you have read.

In his backward glance, the author is searching for the faith by which the West has lived and grown. And he finds what he is seeking, or enough of it to make his own "declaration of faith" in clear and vivid language. "We are heirs to a great heritage," he writes, and if we make it our very own, and live by it, men everywhere will seek to share it with us.

Any attempt to formulate "a statement that unites the centuries as well as the continents," he declares, "will include the following points: first, no government may dictate on matters of conscience; second, there is a natural law which guards this prohibition and which teaches that there are many things we must not do to our neighbor (for example, we must not degrade his moral freedom or dignity); third, there is a natural piety which teaches that there are many blasphemies we must not inflict upon our world (for example, we must not ruin the irreparable soil to make quick profits on crops); fourth, there is a sanction for these 'musts.' They are not relative; they are not temporary; they are true."

This statement, as the author readily admits, invites controversy. So much the better, he says in effect, for we are here dealing with the most fundamental issues of human life, and only by the most rigorous self-examination can we hope truly to possess our own souls. Why and how the author himself arrived at this partial declaration of his own faith is the central subject of the book.

In the presentation of his views, Mr. Agar

(Continued on page 381)

¹Herbert Agar. *A Declaration of Faith*. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952. viii + 237 p. \$3.00.

Social Studies for the New Japan

Loretta E. Klee

JAPAN is deep in the throes of transition from a highly centralized, authoritarian, educational system to a type of education based on the learner and his democratic society. The teachers of history, geography, and allied subjects have felt the full impact of the change for several reasons: (1) The content of the social studies as now recommended for Japan is so broad and inclusive that instructors trained in the separate disciplines are hesitant to draw upon areas other than their own in their teaching. (2) The nature of Japanese society makes the adoption of an area of study which has its roots deep in western culture, in a democratic social order, and in the Christian ethic, very difficult for a people who are steeped to a considerable extent in feudalistic, and, until very recently, totalitarian, patterns of living and thinking.

In spite of the many difficulties involved in the transition, many Japanese educators are sincerely anxious to develop an educational program which will equip their boys and girls to meet the demands of the new social order in post-war Japan. They recognize in "American social studies" an area of study and learning experiences which, *when adapted to their needs*, can contribute richly to the development of moral and spiritual values on the part of Japanese youth, as well as to the acquisition of skills requisite for responsible citizenship.

In response to the request of the Japanese Ministry of Education (the Mombusho), SCAP (Supreme Commander of the Allied Powers in the Pacific) made possible during 1951-52, the continuation of the Institutes for Educational Leadership in Japan. Through this program, American consultative service was made available to the Japanese universities to assist in the

improvement of teacher training programs and in the social studies curriculum planning for the elementary and secondary schools. Help was needed because many difficulties had resulted from an almost immediate "adoption" of American social studies at the close of the war. Social studies had been placed in the Japanese curriculum without much understanding of its meaning, values, and functions. In many instances it had been confused with "core curriculum," to the detriment of both, because most Japanese schools were not yet ready, either by type of teacher preparation or material resources, for complete fusion of courses. Furthermore, an emphasis on current problems, almost to the total exclusion of background informational materials, had caused a wide-spread demand for more history in the social studies program.

Several features of the investigations and accomplishments of the Japanese educators who composed the membership of the four social studies workshops in 1951-52, two at Hiroshima and two at Tokyo, with which the writer was associated, are so rich in suggestions for similar projects in the United States that they are described below in some detail.

PROBLEMS

PROBLEMS which faced Japanese teachers in their social studies investigations are not entirely foreign to American teachers, for example:

1. What is the proper balance between systematic curriculum planning and day-by-day teacher-pupil planning?
2. What is the role of the teacher in a democratic classroom? To what extent should the teacher overtly guide learning activities?
3. Is it wise to present a way of life to boys and girls in school which is too widely separated from the realities of their out-of-school life?
4. How can boys and girls be taught to form their opinions wisely, on the basis of accurate information drawn from a variety of sources, when most classes have only one textbook as a source of reference?
5. How can a teacher plan learning experiences to meet the individual interests, abilities, and needs of pupils, when most classes are so large that the teacher does well to know the names and daily accomplishments of each child?
6. How can teachers who have had intensive training in

The author of this article spent eight months in 1951-1952 in Japan with the title of Educational Consultant in the Social Sciences for the Universities of Hiroshima and Tokyo. She is director of social studies in the public schools of Ithaca (New York) and Cornell University, and a member of the Executive Board of *Social Education*.

only one of the social sciences develop learning experiences and units which draw upon the subject matter and methods of all the social sciences?

7. How can we develop functional understandings of the dignity and worth of all persons when children can look about them and discover that this principle is not carried out in their own country?
8. How can we train teachers to develop a social studies climate in their own public school situations when their entire teacher-training program has consisted of formal lectures?

Initial questions such as these led to a recognition of the need for an analysis of Japanese society as a whole as a preliminary to the improvement of curricula and teacher-training programs. As the members of the Hiroshima and Tokyo workshops came to grips with the realities of their many problems, I learned to respect the thoroughness of their studies and investigations. They realized the harmful effects of the blind transplanting of techniques and educational programs from one culture to another. They knew that changes so made would not be lasting, because they would be neither understood nor adapted to particular needs. As they worked together, several aspects of the methods they employed seemed to me to be significant of desirable changes in their social studies curricula, both in the universities and in the public schools.

During the course of the four six-week workshops, the participants (about 100 social scientists—all men), considered carefully the desirable and undesirable characteristics of past and present Japanese society. They analyzed discernible movements in Japanese society. They asked: (1) What are the feudalistic elements still prevalent in Japan? (2) To what extent are the feudalistic elements hindering economic and educational progress? (3) What should be the role of education in general and of the social studies in particular in the improvement of the Japanese social order? (4) To what extent can education help to prepare Japanese youth for the shocks which are bound to accompany a too-rapid industrialization of Japan? (5) How can we maintain high standards of scholarship and at the same time make instruction so practical that it helps young people to use their money wisely and to be courageous in resisting the bribes and threats of political bosses in their communities? Because the members of the social studies workshops represented a wide diversity of training, each in a separate discipline—philosophy, history, geography, economics, sociology, anthropology, and psychology—these problems and others related to them could be considered in broad per-

spective. For six hours a day, five days a week, these university professors and other educators contributed the results of their study and research to the complex problem of "an ideal social studies program" for Japanese schools.

DEVELOPING CURRICULA

AS THE four six-week workshops continued, specific plans were made to develop curricula to meet the needs of Japanese youth and also of people-governed Japan. Not satisfied with merely setting up aims and theoretical principles, the men assembled courses of study from all parts of Japan. They made critical analyses of each in the light of what they felt to be the needs of boys and girls in post-war Japan. This was followed by specific recommendations for improvement. For example: a careful study of each course was made in order to locate opportunities for the development of the skills of logical thinking in the day-by-day learning activities of pupils. Specific helps were suggested so that teachers might be aided in the development of a kind of thinking which is imperative in a democratic country. This kind of curriculum improvement, based on aims set up for particular situations, and not simply copied from other countries or school systems, is indicative of a kind of planning which should result in lasting changes within the Japanese social studies program. Furthermore, the habit gained of planning learning experiences in relation to stated objectives is very desirable in a country where the world of the mind and spirit is too often divorced from practical problems.

Another area of investigation which has wide implications for improved social studies teaching in Japan was that of classroom research which was carried on during the course of the workshops. They were an outgrowth of readings in psychology and methodology as related to the social studies. The men became especially interested in such research as Wilmeth's investigation of the understanding of chronological time concepts with children of different ages; Shaffer's studies of the ability of children of different ages to deal with abstractions; and Jersild's findings relative to the ability of children at different ages to "find a common pursuit," that is, to do co-operative learning projects. These, and similar studies, opened up to many of the social scientists in the workshop a frame of reference and basis for curriculum planning which had previously been unknown to them. Now they felt they were receiving guidance in determining the most appropri-

ate stages in the maturation of boys and girls for the development of the complex understandings and skills included in the field of social studies.

SEVERAL of the participants of the Hiroshima and Tokyo workshops initiated classroom research projects in the demonstration schools of their respective universities. Three of them were especially well done: (1) an investigation by one of the geographers in the group of the "near-remote interests" of children in the elementary school; (2) a study of the abilities of elementary school children to arrive at logical conclusions in problem situations when they had had no specific training in the skills involved; (3) an investigation of the abilities of boys and girls in the lower secondary school to deal with abstract materials in their social studies courses. The significant feature of this aspect of the workshop program was that professors who had been trained intensively in one discipline had now been sensitized to the need for determining the abilities, interests, and need of learners as one of the fundamental bases for meaningful, functional social studies curricular experiences. These studies and others of similar nature point the way to an improved instructional program in Japan which is focused on the learner himself as well as his society. They should play an important role in adapting instruction to the individual differences found among all boys and girls.

Another very encouraging aspect of the workshops in Japan was the effort to utilize immediately what had been learned. This was evidenced in many ways:

1. Immediate use of evaluation measures developed in the workshops in the universities' demonstration schools.
2. Preparation and use of resource units which cut across subject matter lines, for the assistance of teachers who were trained in only one field.
3. Organization of a research association in the social sciences to continue the studies begun in the workshops.
4. Cooperative planning between liberal arts faculties and teacher-training departments of the universities to provide a broader type of teacher preparation than that which had been offered.
5. Continued coordination of the Japanese Ministry of Education and the workshop groups throughout the year so that plans made could be implemented as needed.

I could not help but feel that this kind of investigation and planning could do much to raise the whole tone of educational planning in Japan. Is it not also suggestive for an improved social studies program in the United States?

Could anything be more helpful in terms of better social studies in the United States than to

have university professors, teacher-training faculties, and curriculum directors, sit down together for six weeks and exchange their ideas for improved programs of social studies? Much needed light could be shed on problems of methodology, academic training, and planned and unplanned learning experiences by this kind of cooperation.

ALTHOUGH the specific purpose of the social studies workshops was improved teacher preparation and curriculum planning, it soon became apparent that a real interest of the participants was in a study of American democracy. They felt that an understanding of democracy as actually carried out in the United States would help them to appraise the role of the social studies in the total educational program. Searching questions relative to American democracy were asked of the American consultant. "How is American democracy of today different from that embodied in your Declaration of Independence?" they asked, and then added, by way of explanation, "Your *basic* truths hold much of potential value for all of the Orient, but we must know if these are still the foundations of your ideology." Also: "To what extent do Americans realize the tremendous importance of your great experiment in liberty, freedom, human worth and dignity? Especially, do they appreciate its *spiritual* import?" Other questions drove deep to the heart of many of our social and political problems: family relations and divorce, juvenile crime, and race conflicts. At the request of the Japanese educators who composed the social studies workshops, many hours were devoted to discussions of American democracy as it functions in the United States today. There was the feeling, throughout my experiences in Japan, that American democracy was on trial before these kindly, tactful, but incisively intelligent scholars. The extent to which the experiences in democratic educational procedures which characterized the workshops contributed to an understanding of the United States is suggested in the comments which follow.

"Up to the time of the social studies workshop, I had had a cynical attitude toward the United States, especially the United States as typified by skyscrapers, cocktail parties and automobile fatalities. In fact, I often seriously questioned whether American society is one that is worth our following in Japan. But since I worked in this social studies workshop, these grudges of mine seem to have disappeared. I understand now what American democracy really is. I also

(Continued on page 360)

Freedom to Learn

Ruth Wood Gavian

THE democratic heritage is based on the idea that all men are brothers and that they have inalienable rights to life, liberty, and the pursuit of happiness. To safeguard these basic rights, the Constitution guarantees freedom of speech, press, assembly, and petition, freedom from unwarranted search and seizure, and the right of an accused person to a prompt and public trial before a jury of his peers. These rights have been fought for and won in a thousand years of bloody struggle against political tyranny. They are embodied in our legislative and judicial institutions. But they are not self-enforcing. There are always men in positions of influence who do not respect these liberties and who would abridge or deny them, often with the excuse that it is necessary for preserving democracy.

Today, when we are fighting to insure our national survival, which we believe is threatened by the spread of communism on other continents, we face the temptation to disregard the Bill of Rights in order to suppress the Communists in our midst. Indeed we have already succumbed to the temptation to an alarming degree. Never in our history as a nation have we accepted so many restrictions on our basic liberties. Never before have we come so near to forgetting the principle on which our judicial system is founded—that a man is innocent until he is proved guilty. In place of this principle, we have hysterically acquiesced in one that is diametrically opposed to it, namely—guilt by association.

The principle of guilt by association has been extended into the realm of ideas, so that a person who favors social or economic reforms intended for the common welfare or that of an underprivileged group, particularly if he also favors efforts to negotiate the differences between the East

and the West, is likely to be considered a Communist or a Communist sympathizer. The resulting restrictions on freedom of thought and freedom of conscience have pressed especially hard on members of the teaching profession, and particularly on teachers of the social studies. These restrictions are, in part, spelled out in recent laws, but mainly take the form of administrative rulings and of demands from various organizations that anyone guilty of unorthodox beliefs (usually described by these groups as “un-American,” “leftist,” “collectivist,” “atheistic,” or “pro-Communist”) be ousted from teaching. There is a mounting pressure for orthodoxy in nearly all areas of thinking—a pressure that has already sharply curtailed the freedom of young people to learn.

The pressure for political, economic, and religious orthodoxy is frequently directed against textbooks and periodicals prepared for classroom use. A large proportion of the social studies textbooks and classroom magazines now in use, including many that have been used in all parts of the country and that have been tested in the classroom for a decade or more, have been denounced by one organization or another on the ground that the material in question contains ideas that are contrary to the interests or opinions of the organization making the complaint.

This “censorship by pressure group” is not new but is becoming increasingly frequent. It greatly hampers the efforts of writers and publishers to supply textbooks and classroom magazines that deal with genuine issues in a way that is broadly informative and intellectually stimulating. It forces writers and publishers to “water down” passages that deal with a controversial matter until, too often, most of the significance is lost. Censorship by pressure group has become a major threat to the right of the student to learn. It not only makes textbooks and classroom magazines insipid, but it causes teachers great anxiety in their selection and use. A teacher never knows when he may be suspected of disloyal tendencies on account of a book or magazine he has selected for his classroom.

The danger of “censorship by pressure group” is also felt by a teacher when he recommends

This is the first of several brief statements the National Council's Committee on Academic Freedom (Arch W. Troelstrup, chairman) is preparing for the readers of *Social Education*. The author, a member of the committee and an assistant professor at Brooklyn College, assumes full responsibility for the content.

supplementary readings, or invites a guest speaker to his classroom, or suggests that his students attend a lecture or a play on a controversial theme. The risk of censorship is still greater should he sponsor or advise a student club which is concerned with the live issues of the day. Security lies in avoiding the serious consideration of local, national, or international problems.

Yet the democratic way of life depends for its very existence upon the free interchange of ideas. *It is the only form of government which provides for the peaceful accommodation of differences.* Peaceful accommodation cannot take place unless there is full opportunity for the people to

hear and discuss all points of view. When discussion is limited to the presentation of ideas that are generally accepted, and new or unfamiliar ideas are refused a hearing, the group is prevented from reaching a new consensus of opinion. This defeats the democratic process of adjusting differences to arrive at a solution.

If young people are to learn to participate in the democratic process, they must have ample opportunity to practice it. The school, more than any other institution, exists to provide this opportunity. Shall we make it possible for the school to do so by protecting that freedom of inquiry which is the basis of the right to learn?

SOCIAL STUDIES FOR THE NEW JAPAN

(Continued from page 358)

realize that American society is more steady and stable than I imagined it to be."

Another Japanese professor wrote: "It is to America that we must turn for the new education which embodies the best of the humanistic spirit. Too long we have looked to the academic systems of other parts of the world which have led only to selfish, individualistic interests. We must look now to America to guide us in developing social studies which will help our boys and girls to understand the conditions of modern life; which will imbue them with ideals of service; and will train them for good citizenship."

THE participants of the workshops appreciated deeply the assistance given by our National Council for the Social Studies in sharing materials with them. Recognizing the value of materials developed by the Council, as well as the journal, *Social Education*, several Japanese professors affiliated with the National Council for the Social Studies. Plans are now being made for continued cooperation between the newly organized Research Associations for Social Science in Japan and the National Council for the Social Studies in the United States. This should be mutually advantageous. The Occident has much of value to teach to the Orient. In like measure, the Orient has much of value to teach to the Occident.

This SCAP program is another illustration of the many contributions of face-to-face programs to international understanding and good will. My own impressions substantiate the expressions from the Japanese participants, that to associate and work with people, day after day, for several

months, is the most effective way of building understanding and of combating the many forms of subtle, pernicious propaganda with which many peoples of the world are being inoculated. Through personal contacts such as characterized these workshops in Hiroshima and Tokyo, peoples of other lands gain a genuine, truthful picture of our lives, our hopes, our ideals.

It is to be hoped that we shall continue our cooperation with, and assistance to, the Japanese educators who share our ideals in the coming years. They need and ask that help. If left entirely to their own resources in this period of infancy in democratic education, I cannot but fear a Weimar in the social studies in Japan. Only the tender shoots of the new plant have been inbedded in the soil of people-governed Japan. To leave this carefully laid planting unsupported, to be buffeted and attacked by the many economic and ideological storms which hover near it, could conceivably result in the complete choking out of the young plant. The end would be a return to the old, firmly rooted, authoritarian, class-centered type of educational system which prevailed for so many centuries. This would be an irreparable loss to an eventual free world, because Japan, in spite of her recent military defeat, is still respected in the Orient. Even today, other Eastern nations are looking to her for educational leadership.

The best of Japan's educators realize that one of the most powerful weapons against tyranny is a democratic education for *all* youth. In the interests of a United Nations and a world at peace, let us continue to support all sincere efforts toward such high goals.

Recent Supreme Court Decisions: Separation of Church and State

Isidore Starr

ONE of the great principles of the democratic credo is the separation of church and state. But, like most resounding fundamental generalities, the utterance of this phrase seldom serves to terminate a discussion.

There is much in the way of interesting literature in this significant area of discussion. The *Zorach* case, which is discussed below, includes several valuable bibliographical notes. Possibly, the wide divergence in the interpretations to be placed on the meaning of this phrase can be best appreciated when one compares Father Wilfred Parson's *The First Amendment* (Considerations on Church and State in the United States)¹ with Mrs. Vashti Cromwell McCollum's *One Woman's Fight*,² the story of the origin of the case which led to the invalidation of the Illinois "released time" program for religious education.

WE KNOW that the First Amendment prohibits Congress from passing any law "respecting an establishment of religion, or prohibiting the free exercise thereof." We also know that, by judicial decision, the due process clause of the Fourteenth Amendment places the same prohibition upon the states. We are told by the Supreme Court that these provisions establish a "high and impregnable wall of separation between church and state." But, from this point on, judicial controversy starts. Are parochial school students entitled to free bus transportation to their schools, if public school students in the same community are granted this service? Are "released time" programs of religious instruction in the public schools compatible with the First Amendment as incorporated in the Fourteenth Amendment? Is Bible reading in the public schools constitutional? Can the state censor a movie because it is regarded as sacrilegious?

This is the second in a series of three articles. The author, a social studies teacher at Brooklyn (N.Y.) Technical High School, is currently on leave on a John Hay Fellowship in the Humanities.

In the *Everson* case (1947) the Court ruled in a five to four decision that it was constitutional for a community to reimburse parents of parochial school students for bus transportation to their schools, where such reimbursement was made to parents of public school children. The following year the Court invalidated the Illinois "released time" program of religious instruction in the now-famous *McCollum* decision. Justice Black's opinion, with only Justice Reed dissenting, concluded that the use of public school classrooms and the state's compulsory public school attendance system to aid religious groups to spread their faith is a violation of the First and Fourteenth Amendments.

"RELEASED TIME" PROGRAMS

WITH the McCollum victory behind them, the opponents of "released time" religious instruction then attacked the New York State law (1940) and the New York City program which has been established under it. New York City permits its public schools to release students one hour per week during the school day so that they may leave the school grounds and go to religious centers for instruction or observance by a duly constituted religious body. The written consent of parents or guardians is required for participation in this training. Those not released stay in the classroom. The religious organizations make weekly attendance reports to the schools. No teacher or principal is permitted to comment on attendance or non-attendance.

Several arguments were advanced charging that this arrangement breached the wall that separates church and state. The school becomes "a crutch on which the churches lean for support in their religious training." All "released time" programs are futile without the weight and influence of the public school system. Public school teachers are required to police the program and classroom activities halt while students are released for religious instruction.

¹ New York: The Declan X. McMullen Co. Inc., 1948.

² Garden City, New York: Doubleday & Co., Inc., 1951.

In *Zorach et al. v. Clauson et al.*, constituting the Board of Education of the City of New York, et al., 343 U.S. 306 (1952), the Supreme Court held the New York program constitutional in a six to three decision. Justice Douglas, writing for the majority, declared that the New York procedure differed considerably from the one in Illinois. Whereas the latter turned over public schools to promote that purpose, the former involved "neither religious instruction in public school classrooms nor the expenditure of public funds." In New York, "the public schools do no more than accommodate their schedules to a program of outside religious instruction."

Justice Douglas sees no merit in the argument that there is interference with the free exercise of religion, for no one is forced to participate and no religious instruction is brought into the classroom. Nor does the Justice find any evidence that coercion is used to get the public school students to participate in the program. On this issue, he states:

The present record indeed tells us that the school authorities are neutral in this regard and do no more than release students whose parents so request. If in fact coercion were used, if it were established that any one or more teachers were using their office to persuade or force students to take the religious instruction, a wholly different case would be presented.

However, a footnote indicates that the New York Court of Appeals declined to grant a trial on the issue of coercion for technical reasons.

As for the argument that the New York program has made a law respecting an establishment of religion within the meaning of the First Amendment, Justice Douglas declares that, although the First Amendment "reflects the philosophy that Church and State should be separated," we cannot read into it "philosophy of hostility to religion." And then, in his usually eloquent and vivid style, Justice Douglas enunciates for the majority the meaning of the principle of separation of church and state.

We are a religious people whose institutions presuppose a Supreme Being. We guarantee the freedom to worship as one chooses. We make room for as wide a variety of beliefs and creeds as the spiritual needs of man deem necessary. We sponsor an attitude on the part of government that shows no partiality to any one group and that lets each flourish according to the zeal of its adherents and the appeal of its dogma. When the state encourages religious instruction or cooperates with religious authorities by adjusting the schedule of public events to sectarian needs, it follows the best of our traditions. For it then respects the religious nature of our people and accommodates the public service to their spiritual needs. To hold that it may not would be to find in the Constitution a

requirement that the government show a callous indifference to religious groups. That would be preferring those who believe in no religion over those who do believe. Government may not finance religious groups nor undertake religious instruction nor blend secular and sectarian education nor use secular institutions to force one or some religion on any person. But we find no constitutional requirement which makes it necessary for government to be hostile to religion and to throw its weight against efforts to widen the effective scope of religious influence. The government must be neutral when it comes to competition between sects. It may not thrust any sect on any person. It may not make a religious observance compulsory. It may not coerce anyone to attend church, to observe a religious holiday, or to take religious instruction. But it can close its doors or suspend its operations as to those who want to repair to their religious sanctuary for worship or instruction. No more than that is undertaken here.

DISSENTING OPINIONS

THREE Justices disagreed with this majority opinion. Each of the dissenters found coercion, "actual or inherent," present in the New York program, and each was sharply critical of the failure of the majority of the Court to follow the *McCullum* decision. The opinions of Justices Black and Jackson are particularly passionate about Justice Douglas's remarks.

Justice Black, who had written the Court's opinion in the *McCullum* case, sees no real significant difference between the Illinois and New York systems. He concludes that in New York there "is not separation but combination of Church and State," because the state manipulates "its compulsory education laws to help religious sects get pupils." He emphasizes the presence of coercion in these words:

Here the sole question is whether New York can use its compulsory education laws to help religious sects get attendants presumably too unenthusiastic to go unless moved to do so by the pressure of this state machinery. That this is the plan, purpose, design and consequence of the New York program cannot be denied. The state thus makes religious sects beneficiaries of its power to compel children to attend secular schools. Any use of such coercive power by the state to help or hinder some religious sects or to prefer all religious sects over non-believers or vice versa is just what I think the First Amendment forbids. In considering whether a state has entered this forbidden field the question is not whether it has entered too far but whether it has entered at all.

Why did Eighteenth Century Americans ratify an Amendment which separated church and state? The answer, emphasizes Justice Black, is found in the multiplicity and diversity of "fighting sects" during the colonial period. When "zealous sectarians" attained governmental power, they would sometimes "torture, maim

and kill" to further their causes. He then adds:

The First Amendment was therefore to insure that no one powerful sect or combination of sects could use political or governmental power to punish dissenters whom they could not convert to their faith. Now as then, it is by wholly isolating the state from the religious sphere and compelling it to be completely neutral, that the freedom of each and every denomination and of all non-believers can be maintained. It is this neutrality the Court abandons today. . . . The abandonment is all the more dangerous to liberty because of the Court's legal exaltation of the orthodox and its derogation of unbelievers.

Justice Black then concludes with his interpretation of religious freedom:

Under our system of religious freedom, people have gone to their religious sanctuaries not because they feared the law but because they loved their God. The choice of all has been as free as the choice of those who answered the call to worship moved only by the music of the old Sunday morning church bells. The spiritual mind of man has thus been free to believe, disbelieve, or doubt, without repression, great or small, by the heavy hand of government. Statutes authorizing such repression have been stricken. Before today, our judicial opinions have refrained from drawing invidious distinctions between those who believe in no religion and those who do believe. The First Amendment has lost much if the religious follower and the atheist are no longer to be judicially regarded as entitled to equal justice under law.

State help to religion injects political and party prejudices into a holy field. It too often substitutes force for prayer, hate for love, and persecution for persuasion. Government should not be allowed, under cover of the soft euphemism of "co-operation," to steal into the sacred area of religious choice.

Justice Jackson's dissent is quite vitriolic. He refers to the judgment of the majority as "passionate dialectics" and prophesies that "it will be more interesting to students of psychology and of the judicial processes than to students of constitutional law." The New York "released time" program, according to him, is unconstitutional because it is obviously founded upon the state's power of coercion.

Like Justice Black, irritated at some of the passages in the majority opinion, Justice Jackson feels impelled to warn:

As one whose children, as a matter of free choice, have been sent to privately supported Church schools, I may challenge the Court's suggestion that opposition to this plan can only be antireligious, atheistic, or agnostic. My evangelistic brethren confuse an objection to compulsion with an objection to religion. It is possible to hold a faith with enough confidence to believe that what should be rendered to God does not need to be decided and collected by Caesar.

The day this country ceases to be free for irreligion it will cease to be free for religion—except for the sect that can win political power. The same epithetical

jurisprudence used by the Court today to beat down those who oppose pressuring children into some religion can devise as good epithets tomorrow against those who object to pressuring them into a favored religion. And, after all, if we concede to the State power and wisdom to single out "duly constituted religious bodies" as exclusive alternatives for compulsory secular instruction, it would be logical to also uphold the power and wisdom to choose the true faith among those "duly constituted." We start down a rough road when we begin to mix compulsory public education with compulsory godliness.

Justice Frank further agrees with Justice Jackson. He maintains that the state courts should have permitted the complainants to present evidence in support of their contention that the New York plan "inevitably results in the exercise of pressure and coercion upon parents and children to secure attendance by the children for religious instruction." In any event, the New York arrangement is unconstitutional if measured by the *McCollum* case.

This "deeply divisive controversy" can be solved, believes Justice Frankfurter, by dismissing all students from school for the period in question so that those who wish can take part in religious instruction. However, he concludes:

The unwillingness of the promoters of this movement to dispense with such use of the public schools betrays a surprising want of confidence in the inherent power of the various faiths to draw children to outside sectarian classes—an attitude that hardly reflects the faith of the greatest religious spirits.

BIBLE READING IN THE SCHOOLS

THIRTY-FIVE states have legislation relating to Bible reading in the public schools. In some of the states the reading is mandatory; in others, optional. The constitutional issue is whether this practice is a breach in the wall of separation between church and state as erected by the First and Fourteenth Amendments.

In *Doremus et al. v. Board of Education of the Borough of Hawthorne et al.*, 342 U.S. 429 (1952), the Court in a six to three decision refused to rule on the constitutionality of the New Jersey law which required the reading, without comment, of five verses of the Old Testament at the opening of each public school day. Justice Jackson, writing for the majority, concluded that the two complainants could not prove that they had suffered sufficient injury as a result of this practice. Since the daughter of one of the complainants had since graduated from the school where the Bible reading had been required, he could prove no harm to himself. And the second one, who sued as a taxpayer, could not show any direct pecuniary damage to himself. Therefore,

this was not a "good-faith pocketbook action"; it did not present a justiciable controversy; and there was no reason to rule on it.

The dissent of Justice Douglas, concurred in by Justices Reed and Burton, insisted that the Court should have decided the constitutionality of the New Jersey law because the complainants were contending that "the public schools were being deflected from the educational program for which the taxes were raised."

CENSORSHIP OF FILMS

THE case of *Joseph Burstyn, Inc. v. Wilson, Commissioner of Education of New York, et al.*, 343 U.S. 495 (1952) is deserving of far more space than we can give it at this point. It represents an important victory for freedom of speech and press; it is a serious blow against film censorship; it raises the motion pictures out of the category of "a business pure and simple" to the level of an important organ of public opinion; and finally, it helps to clarify one aspect of the wall of separation between church and state. We shall discuss it primarily from the last aspect.

The problem before the Court was the constitutionality of the section of the New York State Education Law which empowers the Motion Picture Division of the State Education Department to license the showing of movies within the state. The Division can bar the exhibition of a motion picture by refusing to grant a permit if it finds that "such film or a part thereof is obscene, indecent, immoral, inhuman, sacrilegious, or is of such a character that its exhibition would tend to corrupt morals or incite to crime."

In 1950 the plaintiff obtained the required license to show an Italian film, "The Miracle." During the two-month period that it was shown in New York, many complaints were lodged with the Board of Regents, the head of the New York education system, charging that the film was sacrilegious. There were many who defended the picture. After studying the problem, the Board voted unanimously to revoke the license and to bar the film from further exhibition.

The present action was brought to set aside the revocation of the license. The plaintiff argued that the New York Law violated the Fourteenth Amendment because, not only was it a prior restraint upon freedom of speech and press, but it also represented an infringement of the guaranty of separate church and state. It was urged, in addition, that the term "sacrilegious" was so vague and indefinite as to be

violative of due process of law.

The plaintiff won a great victory. Justice Clark, writing for a unanimous Court, ruled that "expression by means of motion pictures is included within the free speech and free press guaranty of the First and Fourteenth Amendments." He then turns to the church and state theme and concludes that under the two Amendments, "a state may not ban a film on the basis of a censor's conclusion that it is sacrilegious." The key paragraph in the judgment of the Court is:

In seeking to apply the broad and all-inclusive definition of "sacrilegious" given by the New York courts, the censor is set adrift upon a boundless sea amid a myriad of conflicting currents of religious views, with no charts but those provided by the most vocal and powerful orthodoxies. New York cannot vest such unlimited restraining control over motion pictures in a censor. . . . Under such a standard the most careful and tolerant censor would find it virtually impossible to avoid favoring one religion over another, and he would be subject to an inevitable tendency to ban the expression of unpopular sentiments sacred to a religious minority. Application of the "sacrilegious" test, in these or other respects, might raise substantial questions under the First Amendment's guaranty of separate church and state with freedom of worship for all. However, from the standpoint of freedom of speech and the press, it is enough to point out that the state has no legitimate interest in protecting any or all religions from views distasteful to them which is sufficient to justify prior restraints upon the expression of those views. It is not the business of government in our nation to suppress real or imagined attacks upon a particular religious doctrine, whether they appear in publications, speeches or motion pictures.

Justice Reed wrote a very brief concurring opinion indicating that this particular movie should not have been censored. Justice Frankfurter's long and very interesting concurring opinion, in which Justices Jackson and Burton joined, is in reality a dissertation on the semantic implications of "sacrilegious," which he describes as a "portmanteau word." He summarizes a number of reviews of the film and indicates the course of events that led to the emergence of this judicial controversy.

It is interesting that Jefferson's classic phrase—a wall of separation between church and state—is not the simple generalization that some would like it to mean.³ The cases discussed indicate quite clearly that every controversy will have to be decided on its merits as measured by its effect on the First and Fourteenth Amendments.

³See Leo Pfeffer's article, "The Supreme Court as Protector of Civil Rights: Freedom of Religion," in the May 1951 issue of *The Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*, devoted to *Civil Rights in America*. Philadelphia, 1951.

Social Studies in the College: Programs for the First Two Years

William G. Tyrrell

DEMANDS for more intelligent attitudes and understanding of the contemporary world by college students have brought about new emphases and patterns in social studies programs in higher education. As individual subjects, and also as a related body of knowledge, social studies courses are in the center of any college curriculum. Because of this pivotal position, information about and insight into any of the problems and their solutions in teaching the college social studies is of foremost importance.

A forthcoming Curriculum Bulletin of the National Council for the Social Studies—*Social Studies in the College: Programs for the First Two Years*—is a comprehensive survey of the social studies in the lower division of the four-year college and in the junior college. It is also the fifth in a series of Curriculum Bulletins dealing with aspects of social studies curricula from the earliest through advanced study.¹ Previous publications in this series provide a background for the aims and organization of the latest bulletin. Moreover, the survey of social studies instruction in the first two years of college is only one segment of the entire process of social education that is to come under scrutiny in this series.

The fundamental approach to this survey is set forth in the statement of the needs of college students. These are needs both of young citizens in a democratic society, and of young men and women who are undergoing physical changes and making significant personal and social adjustments. There is, in the first part, a discussion of the implication of these needs to the college social studies on the introductory level and what social studies courses can do about meeting the needs.

Of considerable importance are the detailed descriptions of actual social studies courses. Here is a survey of current trends in the college social studies. This account is followed by descriptions of 18 representative courses. Each of the course descriptions was prepared by a member, or group, of the social studies staff in a college, university, or junior college, carefully selected as to size, location, educational objectives, and institutional connections. Each of the descriptions is of one or more specific courses required of freshmen or sophomores or both in the academic year 1950-1951. In addition to the highly selective nature of these required courses, none of them was included in the McGrath study.² While some of the courses in Dr. McGrath's report have undoubtedly been altered in shape or content, it was not deemed satisfactory to duplicate any of the details of his influential volume.

IN THE introductory college social studies courses surveyed in this bulletin, the development of institutions and the record of the past received considerable emphasis. History may be indirectly introduced as a background for the present; or it may be used to explain and examine the origin of contemporary issues or subjects in the social studies. At the University of Notre Dame, Howard University, and Bennett Junior College, knowledge and study of the past are considered of sufficient importance to make courses in history the sole social studies requirement. At Notre Dame, the undergraduate requirement is the study of European history in the freshman year, followed by a course in American

¹ Mary Willcockson, ed. *Social Education of Young Children—Kindergarten and Primary Grades*. Washington: 1952 (Rev. Ed.). Loretta Klee, ed. *Social Studies in the Middle Grades*. Washington: 1952. Julian C. Aldrich, ed. *Social Studies for Young Adolescents—Programs for Grades Seven, Eight, and Nine*. Washington: 1951. Eunice Johns, ed. *Social Studies in the Senior High School*. (In Press.)

² Earl J. McGrath. *Social Science in General Education*. Dubuque, Iowa: William C. Brown, 1948.

Mr. Tyrrell, the editor of the bulletin he here briefly summarizes, is associated with the Division of Archives and History in the New York State Department of Education at Albany.

history for sophomores. The course, Introduction to Social Sciences, for Howard students is a single-year course that emphasizes the heritage of western civilization. Women at Bennett Junior College pursue a similar course in History of Civilization, but in this course there is considerable attention to cultural developments.

A concern about social organization and aspects of contemporary society is reflected in many of the 18 representative courses. Five colleges—four of them junior colleges of extremely different composition and one a new four-year college—required students to complete a single course devoted to the current social scene. These colleges are Wright Junior College, Joplin Junior College, North Park College, Joliet Junior College, and Harpur College. Their aims and content have much in common, yet each has certain individual characteristics that give a distinctive quality to the course.

The combination of a year's study of historical developments followed by an investigation of contemporary issues is another pattern of social studies instruction. In many ways, this arrangement parallels the two types of courses already mentioned. This two-year sequence appears with frequency in the four-year college. Examples are included of the programs at Drake University, Hood College, and The Ohio State University. A similar two-year requirement was also in effect in the junior college division of Pasadena City College. In this section, as well as in the preceding, there are over-all similarities in course aims and content, but each has its own individual differences in points of view and approach to the material.

SOcial studies courses of a somewhat more specialized sort current in the college requirements are those with an emphasis on problems or problem-solving. Such courses do not differ greatly from those in the other sections. However, historical backgrounds and contemporary affairs are only incidental to the primary purpose of understanding an issue and following it through to a solution. Courses at New York University and Amherst College are outstanding examples of this concept of social studies instruction. Courses in other groups, of course, may evince a concern for problems and an interest in solving them, but at these two institutions the techniques of problem-solving—although with different materials—are emphasized.

In the search for an effective program in the first two years of collegiate social studies, some

colleges and universities have devised requirements that do not correspond to the usual patterns. Current offerings at Southern Methodist University, Worcester Junior College, Troy, Alabama, State Teachers College, and Massachusetts Institute of Technology are described in a final category of un-traditional approaches. Southern Methodist, for example, has two separate courses which fulfil the social studies requirement; one resembles a year's course in historical backgrounds, while the other surveys contemporary society with elementary explanations of economics, government, psychology, and sociology. At Worcester Junior College, a departmental set-up provides for instruction in one or more courses in the social studies in keeping with the student's academic or professional aims. The Alabama State Teachers College requires its students to pursue a two-year sequence in the Bio-Social Development of the Individual and a survey of Regional and National Socio-Civic-Economic Problems. At M.I.T., the social studies have been integrated with the humanities for the engineers' two-year requirement.

In the course-descriptions are set forth the aims and objectives of the social studies program. How these objectives are met is detailed in an account of the course content and in discussions of the teaching methods and materials. The changes that have taken place and any that are proposed as well as problems encountered in conducting the courses complete these college statements.

SELECTED problems, confronted in conducting the required introductory social studies course, are thoroughly discussed in the bulletin. The problems investigated are those that are touched on in the 18 course-descriptions. The relationship of the social studies program of the first two years of college to elementary and secondary social studies education is the first of these topics to be explored. The relationship of the social studies curriculum to the total college program is another of the subjects examined. There is also a detailed analysis of the present status, preparation, teaching and non-teaching experiences, and out-of-class responsibilities of the social studies instructor in the lower division or junior college. Foremost in the organization of any course is the selection and utilization of suitable reading material. Principles and criteria for evaluating reading materials are set forth with a wealth of detailed and first-hand observations.

(Continued on page 368)

Let's Go into Business

Hyman Hirsch

THE widespread economic illiteracy prevalent today is very disturbing to all who are concerned with the preservation of our democratic institutions. Obviously, courses in economics have left little mark on the average high school graduate. The only explanation that can be offered for the ineffectiveness of our teaching is that the subject of economics has not been made meaningful to our students. In many schools it is still being taught in the logical arrangement of the average economics textbook. The methodology of many teachers still consists of the elucidation of a series of economic principles by well-chosen examples bolstered up by a certain number of pages assigned for home reading. Our methods must be completely overhauled if we are to be more effective as economics teachers. Functionalism must become the basis of our teaching if we are to succeed in making the subject of economics meaningful to the voters of tomorrow.

As teachers we have failed to utilize properly the economic environment of the student. We have in large measure neglected the economic experiences of the student in his home, in his community, and in his after-school job. We must learn to channelize the experiences of students into the classroom in a systematic manner so that meaningful learning will result. One of the best ways of doing this is through the project method.

Several terms ago, during a discussion on business organization in a class in economics, a number of students told about the experiences of members of their families who were businessmen. So much interest was generated that some expressed the desire, as one student put it, "to start a make-believe business of my own and take up the problems as if I were running a real business." In the ensuing discussion the idea caught fire. Some students felt that they could obtain practical aid from the employers for whom they worked after school. Others indicated that they

had access to practical information through their families and friends. The assignment that day consisted of further exploration of the topic by each student and the formulation of a list of suggestions as to procedure. The next day a general outline was developed by the class. Committees were formed to make reports on such topics as "Individual Proprietorship, Partnership or Corporation"; "Chances of Succeeding as a Small Businessman"; "What does it take to go into business?" The class drew up a calendar and formulated procedures. Each student was given a week to prepare a preliminary outline applied to the business he selected. These outlines were later returned with specific suggestions and were incorporated in the project as the table of contents. Several periods were spent on methods of work. Sources of information were explored and it was decided to pool information by forming a class library. The school librarian was consulted and gave invaluable aid. Ways of utilizing students' talents in art and photography were discussed. At the end of that term, when the project booklets were submitted, most of the students felt that they had experienced a real life situation.

SINCE that term I have used the project method to teach the units on production and exchange. By solving a practical business problem in a realistic manner, students gained concrete understandings of what would otherwise remain verbalistic, academic and abstract.

This term I motivated the project by reading to my students a selection from *The Welfare State* by Jules Ables. It told of the trials and tribulations of inventor Hugo Jones in his efforts to market a "widget" in a monopolized market. It told of the problems he had to solve before he was able to operate successfully. Each of inventor Hugo Jones' difficulties elicited a flood of comparable examples that the students were familiar with either at first or second hand. From here it was but a simple step to get the class to adopt the project method. The procedures that were followed were substantially the same as those previously outlined.

Most of my students have developed projects

The author, a social studies teacher in the Straubmuller Textile High School in New York City, here describes a time-tested project in applied economics.

in the retail and service fields. This term, out of forty different types of businesses selected by students, beauty parlors, dress shops, restaurants, and groceries led in frequency. The only non-retail exceptions were single choices in a chicken farm, a fur shop, a machine shop and a textile jobber. This is understandable since most of my students come from workingclass homes with limited business contacts.

In a student evaluation of the project, many felt that they had learned a great deal about our system of production and our methods of doing business. A great number of students acquired a new respect for the average small businessman. Intelligent planning and attention to detail were held to be important ingredients for success in business. In spite of the fact that some students felt that they would never be businessmen, all agreed that the experience had been a valuable one. All thought that a great deal of concomitant learning had taken place. As one student phrased it, "I learned how to fill out a bank deposit slip, write checks, make out an income tax return and to watch carefully what I buy. Above all I learned how to approach people for information. This will give me a great deal of confidence when I go to look for a job."

IN THE years that I have been experimenting with the project method, I have found it indispensable in the teaching of economics. However, a word of caution is necessary. Class

lessons were not dispensed with. The developmental lesson is still indispensable to real learning. Habits in cooperation develop naturally through the committee work, the planning conferences with those who are engaged on similar enterprises and in the creation of a pamphlet library. With a specific goal in mind, the student's research takes on real meaning. I have often been surprised by the ingenuity of students in securing information. The prospects of their success in the business world have led many to revise their attitudes toward school. The need for information about the advisability of going into a specific business at this time have led some to the study of marketing data. The need for information led to letterwriting and the interviewing of businessmen. This gave them confidence in themselves and a feeling of importance. Before the students embarked on interviews with businessmen, interview guides were developed. The student was impressed with the importance of being brief and to the point. In the project booklet, students learned the need for logical arrangement and neatness in arranging materials. Many were able to utilize information and skills obtained in courses in art, photography, shop-drawing, interior decorating, book-keeping, screen printing, textiles, etc. Teachers have often told me about my students plying them with questions about their specialties. In short, in the project method I found functionalism in operation.

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE COLLEGE

(Continued from page 366)

The role of evaluation is expertly discussed in another of the chapters. There is, finally, a challenging presentation of teaching techniques, including information about non-written materials and classroom procedures.

Recent years have revealed that social studies programs in the first two years of college are no passing fad. As long as the social studies have as objectives the development of effective, informed citizens, the preparation of young men and women for adjusting to the society in which they live, and the education of students in significant aspects of this world around them, there will be instruction in the social studies. These courses will undergo revisions—indeed, there

must be a constant search for new problems and topics that demand investigation. There must also be the introduction and further adoption of new techniques and materials to improve the quality of instruction.

THE concluding chapter of *Social Studies in College* looks to the future: it makes certain recommendations that should be incorporated into the collegiate social studies curriculum in the years to come. By making these changes and by building on the experiences of recent years, social studies in the first two years of college can be conceived and conducted with even greater influence and effectiveness.

The College Entrance Board Social Studies Test

Henry W. Bragdon

I AM irresistibly tempted to preface my remarks with a story about A. E. Housman, author of *The Shropshire Lad*. Although perhaps familiar, it suggests both the difficulties of making up the College Entrance Examination Board Test in Social Studies and also my own attitude toward the venture. Housman, an Oxford man, was for many years a classics don at Trinity College, Cambridge. Although practically a recluse, he was once prevailed upon to attend a dinner of Oxford alumni connected with Cambridge. After the many courses, each with its proper liquid concomitant—sherry, chablis, burgundy, champagne, port, and brandy—Housman rose to speak. "Cambridge has seen strange sights," he said. "It has seen Wordsworth drunk and Porson sober. And here am I—a better scholar than Wordsworth a better poet than Porson—betwixt and between!"

This multiple betwixt-and-betweenness, is one of the most obvious characteristics of the Social Studies Test. In the first place, the test must attempt to do justice both to the public high schools and to independent secondary schools. Secondly, it must steer a course somewhere between testing sheer aptitude and testing achievement. Thirdly, it must be easy enough so that a student taking a single course in American history has an opportunity to do fairly well, yet at the same time hard enough so that a student who has taken several courses in social studies may reveal his superior understanding. It may be fair for me to add the betwixt-and-betweenness of my own attitude toward the test. Although recognizing the practical values of the objective-type test for dealing with fifteen to twenty thousand

candidates, I believe in the superior teaching values of the essay-type examination and look back to the old tests, in which I also had a hand, with a good deal of nostalgia.

I have organized my remarks about the Social Studies Test under three headings: (1) characteristics, (2) results, (3) recommendations.

CHARACTERISTICS

THE first problem to be faced in making up the Social Studies Test is to deal with the fact that the public schools tend to emphasize the "problems" approach, while the independent schools tend more to confine themselves to formal history. In both types of schools, however, it is almost universal practice to include a year of American history at either the eleventh- or twelfth-grade level. The core of the test, therefore, deals with American history. A good deal of the rest deals with terms and concepts which a student might be expected to meet in any sort of course. Finally, there are items designed specifically to fit the student trained in history on the one hand and those who have taken a course in contemporary problems on the other.

Throughout the entire test we have tried to emphasize genuine *understanding*, with the idea of weeding out both the facile student who knows little and the slow student who has simply learned facts by rote. We have also attempted to devise questions which oblige students to *stay with* the material until they see light, this to obviate such criticism as the following:

It has been asserted . . . that today all a student needs in a Social studies examination of the College Board is a pencil, eraser, and a coin; the machines will do the rest. Offered a choice among four or five propositions that are correct, nearly correct, possibly wrong, or frankly absurd, the student may not have to resort to the coin.

Nor is he obliged to do much else. His neuromuscular response hardly rises above the spinal ganglion.¹

The fact of the matter is that we have so con-

The author, an instructor in history at Phillips Exeter Academy, Exeter, N.H., was Chief Examiner in Social Studies for the College Entrance Examination Board from 1945 to 1951. This article was originally delivered as a talk to the annual meeting of the College Entrance Examination Board in New York City on April 2, 1952.

¹ Arthur B. Davling, "School and College and the Social Studies," *New England Studies Bulletin*, March 1951.

stantly attempted to devise questions involving real thought that we have sometimes erred in the direction of making up questions which were too complex. If I were tested on a batch of my own items a month after sending them in, I could not possibly follow my own mental processes well enough to score 100 percent. Here is where the machines come in. After pre-testing, the items are submitted to the machines and they tell us which distractors are "frankly absurd," which are incomprehensible, and—above all—which separate the able students from the less able. It was gratifying that when recently your Committee on Examinations reviewed the Social Studies Test, they came to this conclusion:

The Committee first examined the Social Studies Test. The members favored its broadness and its question types, which, they felt, provided a good test of the candidate's knowledge and ability to think. It was their opinion that while not constricting or controlling the teacher in his choice of approach or subject matter, it provided a good indication of the candidate's ability to do successful work at the college level.

RESULTS

OF COURSE the ultimate judgment of a college entrance subject test must rest on its results. This judgment, in turn, must be based on the answers to several questions: Does the test predict success in its field? Does it do justice between students from different types of schools? Does it produce higher scores from those who have studied the subject for a longer time? What kind of students do well in it? How does it affect teaching? We have been at some pains to try to find the answers to these questions. To take them up in order:

1. *Does the Social Studies Test predict later success in college?* There have been three or four studies made on this topic. I think the most significant was the first, a comparison of the relative success of the former three-hour essay-type American History Test (History D) and the one-hour objective-type Social Studies Test in predicting grades in introductory courses at Harvard in history, government, and economics. The difference between them proved slight, but the Social Studies Test came out ahead. I happened to have a hand in both tests and think that if they were given today the edge of the objective-type test would be even more marked. The essay-type American History was one which had been worked over for years, and was read by highly experienced people. The Social Studies Test was then a new venture, and has been considerably improved since.

Later studies of the Social Studies Test have been devoted to finding out how far it was justifiable to say that it is "just another Scholastic Aptitude Test." This charge cannot be entirely evaded because of all subject tests given, the Social Studies Test shows the highest correlation with verbal aptitude. The question to answer, however, was, "Does the Social Studies Test predict success in college courses in the field significantly better than the SAT?" The answer, I'm glad to report, was "yes."

2. *Does the Social Studies Test do justice between those with differing preparation?* The figure we've watched here is the relative scores from public schools and private schools. Presumably they tell us whether we are keeping a proper balance between historical and "problems" material. So far as I know, there has never been a significant difference in the median scores of the public and independent school candidates. This does not, of course, mean that "equal and exact justice to all schools of whatever state or persuasion" can ever be attained. I know of schools where the scores in the test seem not to reflect sufficiently the excellence of the teaching and ability of the students. In my own school, I'm sure, I could so revise the courses that our students would get higher scores. Nevertheless, taking the picture as a whole, the evidence is that the Social Studies Test discriminates for or against certain types of schools less than did the former essay-type examinations.

3. *Do scores on the test reflect more years of study?* The Social Studies Test is analogous to the language tests in that it applies a single measuring rod to students who may have as little as two-thirds of a year of history and/or social studies and as much as four years. A study of scores at Exeter revealed that candidates taking the test with less than one year of American history had a median between 580 and 590, with two years of study between 620 and 630, and with three years between 660 and 670. The figures for students of French at Exeter, Andover, and Lawrenceville were: two years, 527; three years, 621; four years, 653. Thus, while extra study is not rewarded as much as in a language, it does pay off in significantly higher scores.

4. *Does the Social Studies Test favor some types of students over others?* Yes. No matter how carefully an objective-type test may be devised, I think it must be admitted that by its very nature it favors unduly the facile, lazy student as against the slower, more industrious one. As I have explained, we have tried to obviate this by

devising questions requiring stick-to-it-iveness and genuine understanding, but I still suspect that the facile "guesser" enjoys an advantage. There is a type of "late-blooming serious" who formerly gained recognition he now fails to get. The fact of the matter is that the guesser is really more apt than his more worthy opposite number, and that tests register aptitude rather than character. On the other hand, the present test reflects to a quite extraordinary degree interest in social studies acquired outside the classroom, especially if combined with historical study. The median score of fourteen members of Exeter Debating Team, for instance, was about 715, only one being below 650. These boys were, of course, verbally apt but their Social Studies Scores averaged above their verbal scores on the SAT, while for the school as a whole, the Social Studies Scores were lower. It seems to me that these boys earned a valid bonus because of their interest in social problems and the resulting grasp certainly means higher probability of success in college.

5. *How does the new test affect teaching, especially as compared to the former essay-type tests?*

I have expressed myself on this topic in a recent article which few of you could have seen—at least not *in toto*—therefore, I will simply quote myself:

The dean of one woman's college declared in 1942 that the abandonment of the written tests might prove as great a blow to western culture as the fall of France! For my own part . . . I am not sure that at any time since their disappearance have I got so much solid, systematic work out of boys. I am sure that I have never reviewed the year's work so thoroughly. I miss the happy position of being *in league with my students* to help them get through the examination with a high grade. . . . Perhaps the best thing about (the former tests) was that they required training in writing—an art which, if present educational trends continue, may become as obsolete as the use of the broad-axe.

Yet if the written substantive tests had great value, they were not without serious ill effects. About 1945 a pamphlet by college and school men on the teaching of English in secondary schools concluded, "The definite entrance requirements of the colleges and the examinations based upon them . . . (tended to encourage) highly formal and profitless methods of instruction." The same could be said of history. It was Standard Operating Procedure, even for some schools which claimed to "take the examinations in their stride," to push along rapidly in order to finish covering new ground by May 1. Then began what was often a deadly-dull and stultifying business of learning "canned biographies," outline books, and lists of dates, then regurgitating the material by writing dozens of questions from former examinations. . . . There were all sorts of trick ways of falsifying the record, and many teachers had their carefully-guarded trade secrets. I can now safely reveal one of mine, used in preparing students in European History. I had all the map work for the year done on the same outline maps as were

used in the College Entrance Examination itself. From study of previous examinations for twenty years I had worked out a frequency table of "locatable" areas, boundaries, and places. (Alsace, for instance, is locatable; Brandenburg is not.) The last few hours before the test, students located all of the places likely to appear on the map question. The chances were almost even that a student of mine would get a perfect score; . . . For the poor student this was a practically ironclad insurance against failure. For the good student it was a bonus which almost guaranteed an honor. But it had very little to do with knowledge of history and nothing whatever to do with the chances of later success in college.

Concentration on the examination not only encouraged much bad teaching. It also inhibited teachers from putting into practice techniques in which they believed or from covering areas of social studies not included in the College Board "Definition of Requirements." As Frank H. Bowles, Director of the College Entrance Examination Board, wrote in 1948: "Many secondary schools felt that the removal of the Definition of Requirements was a figurative breaking of the shackles to free secondary school teachers from hampering restrictions."

It is my considered opinion that as a result of this "breaking of the shackles" the teaching of history in the private schools, which formerly prepared practically all their students for the substantive tests, is now on a generally more mature plane than it was ten years ago. There is more emphasis on preparing students for the type of work they will meet after they get to college, less on merely preparing for the examinations that will get them in.²

RECOMMENDATIONS

IN CLOSING, I shall venture three recommendations. The first is to teachers whose students may be candidates for the Social Studies Test, and it is simple: Do not attempt to cram. The test is remarkably cram-proof because so many of the items depend upon understanding. In any given amount of teaching time, fewer topics done thoroughly should pay higher dividends than skimming through a great many. Students should be warned, for their peace of mind, that there will inevitably be many items they will be unable to answer, but nearly all other candidates will be in the same boat. If I were pressed to say how best to prepare for the test, I should recommend an over-all approach which seems to me to correspond with good pedagogy. In the first place, there should be a thorough American history course in one of the last two years; it does not seem to matter in which year it is given. Beyond this, the more courses in social studies the better. As to actual teaching practice, my advice would be as follows: Be sure students really understand the terms they use, such as, "deflation," "protectorate," "plutocracy." Take time to talk over the implication of such basic

² "Communication" from author to *New England Social Studies Bulletin*, December 1951.

concepts as "laissez faire" and "separation of powers." Constantly relate facts to generalizations, generalizations to facts, the past to the present, the present to the past. Finally, see that students learn to read with understanding.

My second recommendation is directed toward both the College Entrance Examination Board and the colleges. I urge that the Board find norms for students who have taken one, two, and three or more years of social studies and that admissions officers interpret the scores accordingly. I know that this may be difficult because the term "social studies" covers a multitude of "fringe" courses—consumer economics, global geography for the air age, even pre-driving instruction! At present, however, the student with less than the average amount of social studies (about two years) is penalized, while the one with more than this average is unduly rewarded. You may ask why a student who starts history in his twelfth-grade year should take the test. Why doesn't he take something in which he is better prepared? The answer to this in some cases is that a student may be taking courses which do not fit the examination pattern. He may be taking music, or art, or Russian, for which no tests are given. He may be completing a school requirement in a subject for which he has little aptitude. On the other hand, there is a type of student who drifts into as many social studies and history courses as possible because—I hate to admit this—he lacks the gimp to wrestle with subjects requiring more arduous initial discipline such as languages,

mathematics, and physics. He should not be unduly rewarded. Therefore, I repeat, find norms based on the number of years of study, have them reported to the colleges, and let them interpret the results as they would language scores—in relation to the number of years of study.

My final recommendation is in the nature of a trial balloon, and I don't claim to have thought out all the angles. I know that it bristles with difficulties, yet feel that it would fulfill a real need. In brief, I propose a revival of the American history essay examination to be used for advanced placement in college. I now happen to be serving on a committee which under a grant from the Ford Foundation is studying the transition from three schools to three colleges. In the field of social studies, we have found serious overlap only in the field of American history. There is a disposition for the colleges to insist that all wishing to go into advanced courses must take the introductory survey course, which often repeats work done in school. There is fear that even the ablest students may "wallow in difficulties" if allowed exemption. On the other hand, students report that they wallow in boredom and frustration because they are held back. An anticipatory examination for the best candidates might solve the difficulty, and might also revive some of the virtues of the former tests, although the test itself would have to be carefully devised in order to avoid the vices of the former system. In making this recommendation I am speaking for myself and not for the College Committee.

A LETTER FROM JAPAN

Members of the National Council will be interested to learn of the steps taken in Japan in starting a Japanese social studies group. Following is a letter as it was received by the NCSS:

Dear Merrill Hartshorn,

We held a workshop about the social studies with Miss Loretta E. Klee, as a consultant at Hiroshima University during the period from September until December, 1951. About fifty participants in the meeting were professors of each university, a few teachers of High Schools and teacher consultants in the Boards of Education of each prefecture in the Western Japan, and we gained much since it was the first meeting of such kind that we have held in Japan, having an authority of the Social Studies from U.S.A.

We have learned much from the remarkable progress of the Social Studies and the deliberate preparations and its fundamental investigations in America under Miss Klee's guidance. And when it was over, we decided to continue our cooperative study by setting up a study association authoritative for promoting the Education

of Social Studies in Japan.

The proposition resulted in founding newly the Western Japan Social Studies Research Association.

The Constitution of the Association will be enclosed in this letter.

We hope we shall also get as many materials as possible from you in America to utilize them for our future study.

I, chairman of the Association, should esteem it a great honour to report you about the foundation of our Association at Miss Klee's request. And I think we must request the honour of having all kinds of assistances from the world-famous your council. We should be much obliged to you if our association could be registered as one of the institutes you are kindly offering every kind of materials for their help.

Here I'd inform you of the new-birth of our Association respectfully.

Sincerely yours,
Iwao Utsumi

Education Faculty
Hiroshima University
Hiroshima, Japan

A Self-Rating System

J. R. Cunningham

ALTHOUGH the method we are trying out in order to make evaluation a bit more realistic in our school, is still in the purely experimental stage, it already shows promise of being a worth-while method of measuring the child's worth, both to himself and to his class. We call our system the "Self-Rating System." It really started in a rather innocuous way several years ago in the ninth grade social studies classes of Mr. Filiere. He found himself worrying about what his pupils were getting out of his classes and whether he was really teaching those values that would add to right living and to a fuller life after leaving school. So, at the beginning of one semester, he asked his classes to write on their class registration slips the grade they expected to get for the semester's work. The term then proceeded on its way and the grades were given in the usual manner and a comparison was made with the pupil's pre-semester hoped for, longed for, or brazenly expected for no justifiable reason, grade. Amazingly enough, in a good many cases, the children received the grade they had expected in the beginning, and this, strangely enough, was a "C." (Our system uses A B C D F with a "D" just passing.) These results left Mr. Filiere just as troubled as he was in the beginning. And so out of this desire to do a better job of teaching and thus produce better citizens, the Self-Rating System began to evolve.

It was felt in the first place that if a pupil did only the work assigned, no matter how well, and contributed nothing further in any way to the class period, he deserved nothing better than a "C." Starting with this premise, Mr. Filiere set about deciding what the minimum daily assignments were to be and in what manner they would be presented to the class. After several semesters he finally put his requirements in the form of the chart which appears on the next page. Let me stress here that this is in no way to be construed

as a finished product, and it is hoped that the reader will feel free to tear it apart, rebuild it or add to it in any way that will be to his best advantage. One of the most interesting and challenging things to come out of the method is the fact that it is now no longer possible for the pupil to complain of "the grade *you* gave me." For this system no longer permits the more or less honest question from pupil to pupil or parent to pupil, "What did *he* give you?" The grade is what the child attained for *himself* by his own efforts. Furthermore, he could watch his own progress as the semester advanced. This factor alone seems to qualify the experiment for further trial and purification.

HOW THE CHART WORKS

AT THE beginning of the semester, each child is given his own copy of the chart and a set of values for all the items listed. This, in our case, was set at 0,1,2,3, with a zero given for no work done and a three for the maximum work contributed in any of the areas. The numbered columns at the right represent the weeks of the semester with the breaks indicating the grading periods. The items speak for themselves.

The keeping of the record by the individual pupil is very simple, for he knows full well what he has done in regard to each item. Furthermore, with the simple grading scale mentioned, it should not be too difficult for any child to rate himself properly and honestly. Of course, it is quite possible that a child may consider his actions the soul of politeness, and according to his standards, he is polite, but that is what the chart is for. It helps to point out in an easy manner the error in the child's thinking. It follows then that the pupil will find no gain in rating himself higher than he ought, for the teacher, by the simple expedient of checking the various items from time to time, can pick out those who fall short of being the honest citizen.

As to the matter of standing in tests, this will be a positive factor in which little or no subjective judgment will enter, for the grades on the tests, which are objective in make-up, will be worked out on a more or less loosely constructed percentile scale and the class informed as to

This article is based on a report that the author gave at the annual meeting of the National Council for the Social Studies in Detroit. Mr. Cunningham is head of the social studies department of the Patrick Henry Junior High School in Cleveland.

NAME	HOME ROOM						GRADE										
(Self Rating Chart)	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10	11	12	13	14	15	16	17	18
1. Notes on Text																	
2. Current History																	
3. Class Participation																	
(a) asked questions																	
(b) answered questions																	
(c) contributed to discussions																	
4. Class citizenship																	
(a) attention to broadcasts																	
(b) attention to discussions																	
(c) materials in class																	
(d) courtesy																	
(e) on time to class																	
5. Standing in tests																	
6. Extra contributions																	
7. My estimated grade																	

where each one stands. The teacher who uses this system may determine for himself just where in the scale it is necessary to be in order to get a certain letter rating. This will be necessary because of the varying abilities in the class room. Where homogeneous groupings are used it will be comparatively simple; where the pupils are grouped heterogeneously some method of awarding standings will have to be worked out. The pupil should be encouraged to keep his chart up to date each week. An occasional check by the teacher, especially at the beginning of the semester, should serve this purpose. By so doing, the pupil may know with a fair degree of certainty just where he stands at any given time.

A great part of the success of this method, of course, will depend on the teacher. Definite assignments must be given at all times or some pretty good alibis may rise to haunt the user. Source material for written and oral reports must also be pointed out so that the pupil may easily locate them if he wishes to use them. All extra contributions such as oral and written reports must be credited and acknowledged by the teacher within a reasonable time. If this is not

done, the pupils will lose interest in this phase of the chart.

It must also be remembered that no pupil will deserve an "A" unless he has earned it; that is unless he has contributed a reasonable amount of work above and beyond the minimum requirements of the course. These requirements will, of course, be determined by the teacher, the course of study, or the policy of the school.

IN CLOSING it should be brought to the reader's attention that a system of this kind can be used by any teacher who wishes to use it and who is interested in helping to further the accomplishments of the pupils along the road to good citizenship. It is not necessary to follow in detail any of the points mentioned. They should be construed only as points or suggestions for further enlargement as may be felt necessary. But there seems to be definite evidence that earnest application on the part of the teacher can lead to more worth-while methods of evaluating our work in terms of helping to create better citizens, wherever they happen to find themselves tomorrow.

An Experiment in Self-Government

Joseph C. Jurjevich

ONE of the most pressing problems before the American schools today is citizenship training. We have at present the laboratories required for the physical sciences but we have neglected the long-needed political science laboratory. In the discussion which follows the writer will describe his efforts to establish a political science laboratory. It was an attempt to establish student government in the classroom and to promote the use of democratic methods. This is not to say that our system of government concerned the members of the class only as citizens of the room. It concerned them in all aspects of their school life.

The population of the room was made up of boys and girls who had come from four different elementary schools and who represented a cross section of the socio-economic groups of the city. Since they were not acquainted with each other, they spent part of their time getting to know each other and discussing the matter of control in the classroom. Following the discussion of our problem (self-government) it was apparent that there was a wide diversity in their concepts of justice and democratic ideals. The situation, as such, presented an excellent opportunity for the employment of democratic processes to establish a unity of purpose in the achievement of common goals as well as providing a situation in which these processes could be practiced and learned.

In addition to unifying our purposes and creating a situation in which democratic methods could be employed, we agreed on courtesies which were to serve as guides in our relationships with each other. We considered this essential in order to promote individual freedom as well as to prevent disregard for the rights of others. These standards of behavior were established by the consent of all concerned, because in so doing we eliminated the element of coercion and considered the wishes of all members of the group, including the teacher.

After having reached basic understandings con-

cerning interpersonal relations in the group, we launched into a discussion of the aims and purposes of members of our group in relation to what they expected to get out of school and the needs and interests of all of us as citizens of a democratic society. The discussion resolved itself, after many disagreements, into a plan whereby small groups were to deliberate, and this was to be followed by another room meeting. At this point the boys and girls separated into small groups of their own choosing and listed the things they would like to have included in a compact which was to govern them.

The next step was the election of a delegate from each small group who was to serve as a representative to a constitutional convention at which a constitution for the room was drawn up. The draft of the document was then presented to the room for their acceptance, amendments, or rejection. Here it is necessary to state that no one was obliged to accept or sign the document if he didn't choose to do so. If anyone didn't wish to participate in the room government, then the control over his behavior was within the teacher's authority. This was the case with three of the pupils who, under no special or harsh discipline, later voluntarily expressed the desire to participate in the experiment.

HAVING concluded the establishment of our constitution, we now sought a means of enforcing it. In an attempt to be consistent with our methods, we decided through discussion to establish a court as a means of dealing with deviates from our mutually agreed upon pact. The court was structured in such a way as to best serve our purposes—that is, we reduced the number of officers and the size of the jury because there were only twenty-four members of the class. In order to allow all members of the class to experience the duties of the court officers, we rotated them by calling for a vote of confidence whenever the class so desired.

The final decision to be made by the class was the matter of punishment. Here we were limited by the rules and regulations established by the Board of Education and the administra-

The author of this article is a social studies teacher in the Horatio G. Bent Junior High School in Bloomington, Illinois.

tion. It was not for this reason alone that we rejected physical punishment, but rather because we concluded that it was not our purpose to punish people but to bring about socially desirable behavior in terms of our own values and sense of justice. Consequently, we restricted reprimands to apologies, a promise to make a concerted effort to abide by the understandings we had reached in our constitution, and listing the names of those who were offenders on a Poor Citizenship List for a prescribed number of days.

The writer realizes that room constitutions

and courts are not in anyway new instruments which have been used as methods of control over behavior in the classroom, but he does believe it is of fundamental importance that our citizens of tomorrow learn to assume the responsibility of governing themselves. It is likewise important to use democratic *methods* in achieving this control, because in a democratic society the locus of moral authority is vested in the individual; therefore, the authority for group control is brought about by group participation and agreement in its establishment.

LOCATION—IN TERMS OF WHAT?

By JOHN C. HOFER

Editorial Department, Denoyer-Geppert Company

A WORKING knowledge of the location of the important physical and cultural earth features is one of the most important goals of all geographic instruction. Although the concepts of latitude and longitude are an important step in mastering locational geography, perhaps too much emphasis is placed on this reference system, especially in the lower grades. The significance of the location of any given feature depends upon its location relative to other features surrounding it; the single fact of latitude and longitude by itself is meaningless.

A few of the unlimited number of criteria for stating relative location are suggested below. Excepting the first, these will usually be stated in terms of proximity to or distance from and direction from other known features.

- Location in terms of latitude and longitude
- Location in respect to political units
- Location in relation to major water bodies and rivers
- Location in respect to major physiographic features
- Location in terms of climate
- Location in relation to prominent cultural features
- Location in terms of recognized geographic areas or regions
- Location in terms of the physical characteristics of the site
- Location in relation to the scene of historic events, past political boundaries, or planned developments for future changes

The understanding of relative location is probably the most important value derived through map reading and interpretation. Every map is designed to convey selected items of geographic information and it may be necessary to study several maps to determine all of the factors of relative location. The location of new names must be taught, and this can best be done by first locating the feature on a map and then describing its relative location.

A geographical guessing game may well be based on the above possibilities of stating location and an exam seeking a description of the location of some earth feature in relation to the various geographic factors would be a valid test of locational understandings. The following example is a statement of the location of one of our major cities. What is it?

This city is located at about 43° north latitude and 88° west longitude. It is located in the State of Illinois in the United States of America. It is just west of the Indiana state line. It is located on the shores of Lake Michigan and is built on an ancient lake plain. It is approximately 250 miles west of Detroit, 800 miles west of New York City and 1000 miles north of New Orleans. Historically the city is located on the site of Fort Dearborn, an early nineteenth century fur trading post. The climate is humid-continental. The city is in the geographic region known as the middle west and is just at the northern edge of the "Corn Belt."

What's Wrong with the Social Studies?

J. D. McAulay

ONE of the 1951 summer school courses offered to elementary school teachers enrolled in the Fresno State College Extension at Bakersfield College, California, was the Social Studies Curriculum. Fifty experienced elementary teachers were enrolled in this course. As a project for the course, each teacher was asked to take the social studies curriculum he or she had used during the previous school year and analyze it for weaknesses. Thirty-five social studies curricula were examined, using the following methods as the basis of examination:

1. Two hundred and fifty teachers who had had experience in the use of some one of the curricula studied were contacted and their opinions of that curriculum secured.
2. The objectives, content and methods of each social studies curriculum were weighed and compared with those suggested for a good elementary social studies curriculum in the texts used by the class.¹
3. The objectives, content and methods of each curriculum were weighed and compared with those set forth in model and more recent social studies curricular for the elementary school.²

Deficiencies noted. From the thirty-five social studies curricula thus analyzed, the following general deficiencies were noted:

1. Ninety-seven teachers stated they seldom used or followed the prescribed social studies curriculum. Seventeen teachers maintained they had not read, previous to the course assignment, the curriculum the administration had expensively printed for their direction. Two teachers said they had not known of a printed social studies curriculum prior to the course. They had used the textbook as the principal source of guidance. The reasons given for not using the prescribed curriculum were:
 - (a) It was not adapted to the interest and abilities of the children.
 - (b) It was not harmonious with the community resources and problems nor with the adopted texts.
2. Only one of the thirty-five curricula studied had an

"The principal conclusion reached from the survey of thirty-five social studies curricula," the author states, "is that a social studies curriculum should be a continually changing organism, guided and directed in its evolution by the classroom teachers themselves." Dr. McAulay is director of education at the Southern Oregon College of Education.

active curriculum committee, whose duty it was to review and improve the curriculum in harmony with changing community problems and conditions and to adapt it to and for specific schools and classrooms. And even this one social studies curriculum committee had not changed its membership since 1945!

3. Of the thirty-five curricula studied twenty-three, the teachers concluded, were out of date in the following aspects:

- (a) In the suggested use of newer materials, particularly textbooks.
 - (b) In the omission of modern local, national and world problems and the relation and effect of those problems on the local community. As an example of this deficiency the twenty-three curricula included no study of war plant expansion in Southern California, nor the importance of the Shasta Water Scheme to Southern California.
4. Nineteen social studies curricula lacked flexibility. They were rigid in requirement as to content to be taught and the materials to be used. Two curricula indicated the methods and techniques to be used in teaching the content.
 5. Twenty-one social studies curricula had no correlation with science, language arts, music or art. Five curricula seemingly gave greater emphasis to history; geography having little importance as compared to history. Three curricula contained no map study.
 6. Twenty-seven of the thirty-five curricula made no provisions for satisfying the great need for training in moral and spiritual values, a problem particularly acute in Southern California.
 7. Nineteen of the curricula had no pattern seemingly, of content, methods and materials through the grades. This lack of pattern was particularly noticeable between

¹John A. Michaelis. *Social Studies for Children in a Democracy*. New York: Prentice-Hall, Inc., 1950.—James A. Michener. *The Future of the Social Studies*. Washington, D. C.: National Council for the Social Studies, 1939.—National Council for the Social Studies. *Social Education for Young Children; Kindergarten and Primary Grades*, Curriculum Series #4, N.C.S.S. (rev.) 1950.—Ralph Preston. *Teaching Social studies in the Elementary School*. New York: Rinehart and Co., 1950.—Edgar B. Wesley and Mary A. Adams. *Teaching Social Studies in Elementary Schools*. Boston, Mass.: D.C. Heath and Company, 1946.

²State of Kansas. *Course of Study for the Social Studies*, Elementary Grades. 1949. Newton, Massachusetts. *Social Studies Curriculum*, Grades I-VIII.—Tyler Public Schools, Tyler, Texas. *Social Living Curriculum*, Elementary Schools. 1950. Waco Public Schools, Waco, Texas. *Social Education Curriculum*, Elementary Schools. 1949.

the primary and intermediate grades and between the intermediate and senior grades.

Suggested Improvements. The fifty elementary teachers outlined the following procedures for the improvement of each of the thirty-five social studies curricula studies:

1. A committee of teachers, representatives of each elementary grade, would study the problems of the community and the needs of the children for one year.
2. These needs and problems would be incorporated into the curriculum by the social studies committee, also composed of representative teachers.
3. The social studies curriculum committee would attempt to correlate, content, materials and methods more closely between the grades, especially between the elementary, junior high and senior high schools. It was suggested all three schools have the same social studies curriculum committee.
4. The social studies curriculum committee would receive new membership each year, except for the chairman

and secretary whose term of office would extend over a period of two years. The new chairman and secretary would be selected from members who had served with the committee.

5. The social studies curriculum should go through an evolutionary change. It would cause irreparable damage to discontinue one curriculum and substitute an entirely new one. A good social studies curriculum evolves and changes to meet the needs, problems and requirements of the teachers and children.

6. A social studies curriculum constructed by those who will not themselves implement it within the classroom is dead and useless before it is printed.

Thus the principal conclusion reached from the survey of thirty-five social studies curricula is that a social studies curriculum should be a continually changing organism, guided and directed in its evolution by the classroom teachers themselves.

REPORT OF THE CURRICULUM COMMITTEE

By HELEN MCCracken CARPENTER, *Chairman*
State Teachers College, Trenton, N.J.

MEMBERSHIP of the 1952 committee in addition to the chairman, has consisted of Marlow Markert, vice chairman, Maurice Ahrens, Everett Augspurger, Frank J. Dressler, Jr., Harold Drummond, William B. Fink, Millicent Haines, Eunice Johns, Stella Kern, and Ole Sand. The committee has functioned by means of much correspondence, various meetings of sub-committees in different parts of the country, and two conferences. One of these was a two-day meeting in Chicago in April and the other was held during the convention in Dallas.

An important goal of the committee has been the completion of additional volumes in the curriculum series. During the past year, the 1950 revision of *Social Education for Young Children*, edited by Mary Willcockson, was reprinted with a few changes to keep the volume up-to-date. Two new volumes are in press and scheduled to appear shortly. They are *Social Studies for Older Children: Programs for the Middle Grades*, edited by Loretta Klee, and *Social Studies in the College: Programs for the First Two Years*, edited by William G. Tyrrell.

In the editorial stage and due for publication in the middle of 1953 is *Social Studies in the Senior High School*, which is being edited by Eunice Johns. Two other volumes cutting across grade levels are in progress with publication expected in the fall of 1953. One is *The Problems Approach in Social Studies*, with George Fersh as editor. The other is *Social Studies in the Com-*

mon Learnings Program, edited by Maurice Ahrens.

A volume on *Changing the Social Studies Curriculum* is being outlined by Ole Sand and Ruth Ellsworth. Content will include not only the processes by which curriculum change can most advantageously take place, but also the kinds of jobs which must be discharged in the process. Examples of the way in which school systems have attacked the problem will be presented. Council members are urged to write Dr. Sand or Dr. Ellsworth at the School of Education, Wayne University, Detroit, Michigan, suggesting topics and the names of systems now engaged in experimentation.

Another major goal of the committee this past year has been to inform Council members of developments in curriculum matters through the pages of *Social Education*. The November number carried a brief discussion by Howard Cummings on recent courses of study, and a digest by Loretta Klee of the bulletin for the middle grades. This issue contains an article by William B. Fink and Millicent Haines dealing with curriculum materials, and a digest by William G. Tyrrell of the bulletin for the first two years of college. Scheduled for spring publication is an article by Ole Sands dealing with the services of student councils.

The Curriculum Committee invites Council members to send suggestions of projects to be undertaken and reactions to those completed.

Bibliography of Textbooks in the Social Studies 1951-1952

Alice W. Spieseke

This listing is the fourth annual supplement to the 48-page bulletin published in September 1949 by the National Council for the Social Studies (See Alice W. Spieseke, *Bibliography of Textbooks for the Social Studies*, Bulletin 23, September 1949, and the subsequent annual supplements appearing in *Social Education* in December 1949, December 1950, and December 1951). Copies of the bulletin may be obtained for 75 cents each; reprints of the supplementary listings, 10 cents each. Send your orders to Merrill F. Hartshorn, Executive Secretary of the National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N.W., Washington 6, D.C.

ELEMENTARY SCHOOL

History

1. AMERICAN LIFE HISTORY SERIES: Webster: *My Country's Heritage*, by Merlin M. Ames and Jesse H. Ames; viii + 459 p.; \$2.16; 1951 (1945).
2. HARTMAN AND LANSING: History on the March Series. Educational Consultant, W. Linwood Chase; General consultant, Allan Nevins, Heath.
 - c. *Makers of the Americas*, by Marion Lansing; xii + 468 p.; \$2.80; 1951 (1947).
 - d. *Builders of the Old World*, by Gertrude Hartman; xii + 468 p.; \$2.80; 1951 (1946).
3. MACMILLAN ELEMENTARY HISTORY SERIES. Macmillan.
 - b. *The Story of American Freedom*, by Edna McGuire; viii + 438 p.; \$2.72; 1952 (1946, 1940 *American Then and Now*).

Geography

1. MCCONNELL SERIES. Rand McNally.
 - b. *Geography of Many Lands*, by Wallace R. McConnell; iii + 248 p.; \$2.88; 1952 (1945 *Geography Around the World*).
 - c. *Geography of American Peoples*, by Wallace R. McConnell; vi + 376 p.; \$3.36; 1952 (1945 *Geography of the Americas*).
 - d. *Geography of World Peoples*, by Wallace R. McConnell; vi + 376 p.; \$3.40; 1952 (1950, 1946 *Geography of Lands Overseas*).

Fusion or General Social Studies

1. DEMOCRACY SERIES REVISED. Edited by Prudence Cutright and W. W. Charters; Macmillan.
 - f. *Pioneering in Democracy*, by Edna Morgan; xii + 340 p.; \$2.16; 1951 (1940).
 - g. *The Way of Democracy*, by Allen Y. King and Ida Dennis; xii + 404 p.; \$2.32; 1951 (1940).

- h. *The Growth of Democracy*, by Edna McGuire and Don C. Rogers; xvi + 428 p.; \$2.32; 1952 (1941).
- i. *Working for Democracy*, by Lyman Bryson and George K. Smith; xvi + 425 p.; \$2.32; 1952 (1941).
2. MOORE, PAINTER, LEWIS, AND CARPENTER: Scribner Social Studies Series. Scribner's.
 - b. *Building Our America*, by Clyde B. Moore, Helen M. Carpenter, Fred B. Painter, and Gertrude M. Lewis; xi + 468 p.; \$2.68; 1951 (1948).
3. TIEGS-ADAMS: Social Studies Series. Ginn.
 - e. *Your Country and Mine: Our American Neighbors*, by Gertrude Stephens Brown; 488 p.; \$3.56; 1951.
 - f. *Your World and Mine; Neighbors in the Air Age*, by Grace S. Dawson; 488 p.; \$3.56; 1951.
4. WINSTON SOCIAL STUDIES SERIES. Chief consultant Roy A. Price. Winston.
 - d. *Toward Better Living*, by Mabel Snedaker and Maxine Dunfee; vi + 346 p.; \$2.20; 1952.
 - e. *Toward Modern America*, by Mabel Snedaker and Maxine Dunfee; x + 438 p.; \$2.56; 1951.

JUNIOR HIGH SCHOOL

American History

1. COX, MOTHER AMY, AND WEAVER: *Voyages in History: Our Nation Today*, by Reverend Joseph G. Cox, Mother Marie M. Amy, and Robert B. Weaver; vii + 503 p.; Loyola; \$1.84; 1951. For Catholic schools.
2. HARTMAN: *America: Land of Freedom*, by Gertrude Hartman; with educational consultant Charles C. Ball, and general consultant Allan Nevins; in History on the March Series; xv + 720 p.; Heath; \$3.60; 1952 (1946).
3. MOORE, COOKE, LEWIS, PAINTER, CARPENTER, AND

PAQUIN: Scribner Social Studies Series. *Building a Free Nation*, by Clyde B. Moore, Helen McCracken Carpenter, Lawrence G. Paquin, Fred B. Painter, and Gertrude M. Lewis; xiv + 548 + xv-lx p.; Scribner's; \$3.40; 1952 (1950).

4. QUILLEN AND KRUG: *Living in Our America, a Record of Our Country*, by James I. Quillen and Edward Krug; 752 p.; Scott, Foresman; \$3.75; 1951. Reviewed by Clarence Killmer, *Social Education*, January 1952, p. 45-6, and by Louis Gottschalk, *Social Studies*, March 1952, p. 142.
5. WILDER, LUDLUM, AND BROWN: *This Is America's Story*, by Howard B. Wilder, Robert P. Ludlum, and Harriett M. Brown; edited by Howard R. Anderson; viii + 710 p.; Houghton Mifflin; \$3.68; 1952 (1950, 1948).
6. WILSON AND LAMB: *American History*, by Howard E. Wilson and Wallace E. Lamb; xiv + 594 + xv-liv p.; American Book; \$3.24; 1952 (1950, 1949, 1947).

Civics and Citizenship

1. ADAMS AND WALKER: *Democratic Citizenship in Today's World*, by A. Elwood Adams and Edward E. Walker; x + 373 p.; Scribner's; \$2.00; 1951 (1948, 1944). Reviewed by J. Ira Kreider, *Social Studies* February 1952, p. 89-90.
2. BARD AND MANAKEE: *Active Citizenship*, by Harry Bard and Harold S. Manakee; v + 506 p.; Winston; \$3.44; 1951.
3. HUGHES: *Building Citizenship*, by R. O. Hughes; xvi + 654 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$3.20; 1952 (1948, 1947, 1946, 1944, 1943, 1942, 1941, 1940, 1939, 1938, 1937, 1936, 1935, 1934, 1933; 1933, 1932, 1931, 1928, 1923, *A Textbook in Citizenship: Community Civics, Economic, Vocational Civics*).
4. IVEY, BRELAND, AND DEMERATH: *Community Resources*, by John E. Ivey, Woodrow W. Breland and Nicholas J. Demerath; v + 314 p.; Winston; \$2.56; 1951.
5. TIEGS-ADAMS: Social Studies Series. Ginn.
 - i. *Your Life as a Citizen: Community, Nation, World*, by Harriet Fullen Smith; 496 p.; \$3.72; 1952.

Geography

1. ATWOOD: *The World at Work*, by Wallace W. Atwood; vii + 344 p.; Ginn; \$3.32; 1951 (1946, 1942, 1938, 1931).
2. ATWOOD AND THOMAS: *The Growth of Nations*, by Wallace W. Atwood and Helen G. Thomas; ix + 388 p.; Ginn; \$3.44; 1951 (1947, 1944, 1943, 1941, 1936).
3. TIEGS-ADAMS: Social Studies Series. Ginn.
 - g. *Your Country and the World: Resources, Business, Trade*, by Robert M. Glendinning; 512 p.; \$3.72; 1952.

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

American History

1. CANFIELD AND WILDER: *The Making of Modern America*, by Leon H. Canfield and Howard B. Wilder; editors Howard R. Anderson, Ellis M. Coulter, John D. Hicks, and Nelson P. Mead; xvi + 783 + xvii-lxxix p.; Houghton Mifflin; \$3.96; 1952 (1950; 1946, 1937, *The United States in the Making*).
2. MUZZEY: *A History of Our Country*, new edition, by David S. Muzzey; x + 642 + xxxviii p.; Ginn; \$3.84; 1952 (1950, 1948, 1946, 1945, 1943, 1942, 1941, 1939, 1937, 1936).
3. RIEGEL AND HAUGH: *United States of America*, by Robert E. Riegel and Helen Haugh; viii + 855 p.; Scribner's; \$3.80; 1951 (1949, 1948, 1947).
4. WIRTH: *The Development of America*, by Fremont P. Wirth; x + 806 + xi-lxviii p.; American Book; \$3.84; 1952 (from 1936 to 1950 inclusive).
5. WIRTH: *United States History*, by Fremont P. Wirth; x + 740 + xi-lxiii p.; American Book; \$3.84; 1952 (1950, 1949, 1948).

SENIOR HIGH SCHOOL

World History

1. BECKER, PAINTER, AND HAN: *The Past That Lives Today*, by Carl Becker, Sidney Painter and Yushan Han; viii + 856 p.; Silver Burdett; \$4.32; 1952.
2. CALDWELL AND MERRILL: *World History: the Story of Man Through the Ages*, by Wallace E. Caldwell and Edward H. Merrill; ix + 870 p.; Sanborn; \$3.96; 1952 (1949).
3. CAPEN: *Across the Ages; The Story of Man's Progress*, by Louise I. Capen; x + 851 + xi-li p.; American Book; \$4.08; 1952 (1950, 1949, 1948, 1947, 1946, 1945, 1943, 1942, 1941, 1940).
4. HABBERTON AND ROTH: *Man's Achievements through the Ages; A World History*, by William Habberton and Lawrence V. Roth; 800 p.; Laidlaw; \$4.12; 1952.
5. ROBINSON, BREASTED, AND SMITH: *Earlier Ages*, by James H. Robinson, James H. Breasted, and Emma P. Smith; xxxv + 896 p.; Ginn; \$3.96; 1951 (1937; 1929, *History of Europe: Ancient and Medieval*, by Robinson and Breasted; 1919, 1912, *Outlines of European History*, vol. I, by Robinson and Breasted).
6. ROBINSON, BEARD, AND SMITH: *Our Own Age*, enlarged edition, by James H. Robinson, Charles A. Beard, and Donnal V. Smith; xiv + 878 + xlvi p.; Ginn; \$4.20; 1952 (1945; 1940, 1937, 1934, 1933, 1932, 1927, 1921, *History of Europe; Our Own Times*, by Robinson and Beard; 1927, 1919, 1912 *Outlines of European History*, Vol. II, by Robinson and Beard).
7. ROEHM, BUSKE, WEBSTER, AND WESLEY: *The Record of Mankind*, by A. Wesley Roehm, Morris R. Buske, Hutton Webster, and Edgar B.

- Wesley; vi + 747 p.; Heath; \$3.96; 1952 (1949).
8. ROGERS, ADAMS, AND BROWN: *Story of Nations*, by Lester B. Rogers, Fay Adams and Walker Brown; xxii + 730 p.; Holt; \$4.16; 1952 (1949, 1947, 1945, 1940, 1936, 1934).
 9. SMITH, MUZZEY, AND LLOYD: *World History*, revised edition; by Emma P. Smith, David S. Muzzey, and Minnie Lloyd; xi + 742 + xxxi p.; Ginn; \$4.20; 1952 (1949, 1948, 1946).
 10. WALLBANK: *Man's Story*, by T. Walter Wallbank; 768 p.; Scott, Foresman; \$3.76; 1951. Reviewed by W. A. Browne, *Social Studies*, March 1952, p. 138-39.

Geography

1. CHAMBERLAIN AND STEWARD: *Air Age Geography and Society*, third edition, by James F. Chamberlain and Harold E. Stewart; x + 697 p.; Lipincott; \$3.60; 1952 (1945; 1942, 1938, *Geography and Society*, by Chamberlain; 1933, 1928, 1921, *Geography; Physical, Economic, Regional*).

Economics

1. FAIRCHILD AND SHELLY: *Understanding Our Free Economy: An Introduction to Economics*, by Fred R. Fairchild and Thomas J. Shelly; xii +

589 p.; Van Nostrand; \$3.96; 1952.

2. KOREY AND RUNGE: *Economics*, by Edward L. Korey and Edmond J. Runge; xi + 708 p.; Warren; \$3.52; 1951 rev. ed. (1939). Reviewed by Frederick E. Bauer, Jr., *Social Education*, January 1952, p. 48.

Consumer Economics

1. WILSON AND EYSTER: *Consumer Economic Problems*, by W. Harmon Wilson and Elvin S. Eyster; viii + 757 p.; South-Western; \$2.80; 1951; (1945, 1940, by Harold G. Shields and W. Harmon Wilson; 1935 *Business Economic Problems*).

Government

1. MAGRUDER: *American Government*, by Frank A. Magruder and revised by William A. McClenaghan; xiii + 786 p.; Allyn and Bacon; \$3.40; 1952 (yearly since 1926; 1924, 1923, 1921, 1917).

Problems of Democracy and World Affairs

1. MOWRER AND CUMMINGS: *The United States and World Relations*, by Lillian T. Mowrer and Howard H. Cummings; xiii + 466 p.; Harper; \$3.48; 1952. Reviewed by Manson Van B. Jennings, *Social Education*, May 1952, p. 235-36.

CHRISTMAS, 1952

(Continued from page 355)

never minces words. Take, for instance, one of his numerous comments on the matter of conscience. "Who but God can decide whether the workman in a Detroit factory loves freedom more than the Spanish farmer, the Italian stonemason, the Argentine cowboy? There are many roads to liberty, including the anarchic distaste for government which makes the Mediterranean peoples a curse to bureaucrats. There are many roads to servitude, including the self-idolatrous folly of those who praise the present attack on the civil rights of Americans, in the name of 'Americanism.'" But there is only one road to freedom and justice and lasting peace, and the lamp that lights that road is fed by each man's conscience. The conscience must remain inviolate, or man is nothing.

But there are dangers we must guard against, those of us who seek to possess our own souls, and not the least of these is that of self-satisfac-

tion. It is so comforting to believe that we are always right, our enemies always wrong. So comforting, but so utterly false, for if history teaches anything it is "that the evil in human nature belongs to all mankind." Even majority rule can be poisonous if uncontrolled by conscience, for man's power of evil passes understanding. But so does his power of good, and if in these troubled days we pray at all, we should pray, as Solomon did, for "an understanding heart."

Each year at Christmas time the dream of peace on earth, good will toward men, shines bright and clear in millions of hearts throughout the Western world. All of us share the responsibility for making that dream come true. If we believe, as Mr. Agar does, that "The West, by an act of will, can save itself and send hope to humanity," we will try to do something about it. And we will start, as he did, by clarifying the faith by which we live.

Discussion vs. Argument

Mark F. Emerson

ONE of the most important habits for good citizenship in a democracy is the habit of attacking problems by discussion rather than by argument. If the difference between argument and discussion is not readily apparent, it is probably because we do not point out that difference to our students as often as we should. To discuss and to argue are often loosely used to mean the same thing but there is a very significant and useful distinction between them. To discuss, according to Webster, is "to sift or examine by presenting considerations pro and con." To argue is "to adduce arguments or reasons in support of one's cause or position." In other words when we discuss a problem, we try to get at the facts objectively, to arrive at valid opinions, and to work out effective ways of handling the problem. But, if we argue over the problem, our minds are made up in advance and we merely pick out facts or make up reasons to defend our opinion. Discussion is open-minded. It is an attempt to apply the scientific method in our thinking. It encourages intellectual honesty. It is the only way in which we can arrive at lasting solutions to problems. Argument is close-minded. It encourages intellectual dishonesty. One side may browbeat the other into submission, but effective and lasting solutions are not likely to come out of such a process.

Thus if we are to prepare our students for effective citizenship the need for cultivating the habit of discussion instead of argument is obvious. But unfortunately we are much more prone to argue. It's more fun. Pride of opinion makes us hate to admit that we are wrong. We want to feel superior by proving we are right. Our vested interests dictate our thinking. So what should be discussion in the classroom often degenerates into argument. Management and labor argue over wages and working conditions. Democrats and Republicans argue over national is-

ues. And Russia and the United States argue in the United Nations. All this in spite of the general acceptance of the old adage, "You never get anywhere in an argument." It is obvious, though, that this is something we cannot change overnight.

How do we start? The first thing to do is to make the distinction between argument and discussion clear. A good way to do this is to work out with our students the difference between the two. Have them fill out a chart together on the blackboard comparing discussion and argument on the following bases: purpose, methods, characteristics, and results. The chart should come out something like this:

	Discussion	Argument
Purpose:	To find out the facts.	To prove you are right.
Method:	Asking questions.	Making dogmatic statements.
Characteristics:	Cool and collected.	Hot and bothered.
Results:	New knowledge and valid opinions.	Strengthened prejudices, bloody noses, black eyes.

Your students will doubtless have different ways of expressing the differences and they may want to make further comparisons. However, after completing the chart, they should be able to distinguish readily between discussion and argument, to recognize them when they occur in class, and to appreciate the value of the former and the danger of the latter. Then it can become a class game to call anyone who yields to the temptation to argue. Thus the class can police itself—and it will probably take a lot of policing—to keep class discussions from degenerating into arguments. Teachers, as well as students, will have to resist the temptation to start arguments or let them get started. They provide such an easy method of enlivening a class we are too prone to let them go on in spite of the fact that they defeat one of our main objectives, open minded consideration of facts.

Democracy has been very aptly called "Government by discussion." Unfortunately it seldom reaches this ideal. Social studies teachers can do a lot to improve this situation.

The author, a social studies teacher at Friend's Central School in Philadelphia, here stresses the value of discussion as preparation for citizenship in a democracy.

Notes and News

Wanted

Copies of January, February, and March 1952 issues of *Social Education* are needed to meet some urgent requests from libraries. If you have a copy of these issues you no longer need, you would be rendering a valuable service if you would send them to the headquarters office of the National Council for the Social Studies. They would be placed where good use could be made of them. Your help on this will be deeply appreciated.

NCSS President Visits West

During September, October, and November, President Julian C. Aldrich visited social studies teachers in the northern and western tier of states and then visited in Arizona and New Mexico on the way to the Dallas meeting.

In Minneapolis, President Aldrich met with the Executive Committee of the Minnesota Council for the Social Studies on September 24, and with the combined Minnesota Council, Minneapolis Council, and St. Paul Council on September 25. The meetings were arranged by Edith West and Alice Brandt, Secretary and Vice President of the Minnesota Council, in cooperation with Minnesota President Conrad Hoff, St. Paul Council President, Mary Pilch, and Minneapolis Council President George McDonough.

Butte, Montana, social studies teachers of the elementary schools and the high school met to hear Dr. Aldrich on September 30. The meeting was arranged by Superintendent of Schools George Haney.

Meetings of a civic group, the Curriculum Council, the junior high school teachers, the high school faculty, and several University of Montana groups met with President Aldrich in Missoula on the evening of September 30 and during the day of October 1. The meetings were arranged by Clifton B. Worthen of Missoula County High School, Dean Carlton and Acting Dean James Short of the University of Montana.

A gathering in Spokane of social studies teachers from the elementary and high schools of the Inland Empire was arranged by E. T. Becher of John R. Rogers High School. At the dinner meeting on October 2 at which President Aldrich spoke, the teachers formed the Inland Empire Council for the Social Studies.

The Central Washington Council for the Social Studies arranged a Council meeting in Wenatchee on October 4, and a dinner meeting of teachers of Ellensburg and the Central Washington College of Education on October 3. Arrangements were made by Central Washington Council President Arley Vancil and Professors Harold Williams and Max Klingbeil of Central Washington College of Education.

President Julian C. Aldrich spoke to the Puget Sound Council for the Social Studies on October 6 and met with the Executive Committee that afternoon. On October 7 he met with the Seattle Public School's Curriculum Committee, with the department chairmen of the senior and junior high school social studies teachers, and with the junior high school teachers. These meetings were arranged by Emlyn Jones, Director of Social Studies, Seattle Public Schools.

The Social Studies Section of the Oregon Education Association met with President Aldrich in Portland at a dinner meeting on October 10. Arrangements were made by Helen Schaper, President of the Social Studies Section, OEA.

From October 14 to 23, President Aldrich spoke to groups of teachers in the Los Angeles region in their Teachers' Institutes. These were arranged by Raymond Brown of Los Angeles, a member of the NCSS Board of Directors. It was largely through Mr. Brown's efforts that this Western trip was made possible.

The Southern California meetings included sessions in Los Angeles City, Los Angeles County at El Rancho, Citrus, and Antelope Valley; in Long Beach; and in Orange County at Santa Ana and Anaheim.

Following the Southern California sessions, President Aldrich met with the social studies teachers of the Bay region in San Francisco. The arrangements were made by Lavone Hanna of San Francisco State College and Clarence A. Leal President of the San Francisco Council of Social Studies Teachers.

American Legion Resolutions

At the Annual Convention of the American Legion held in New York City, August 25-28, 1952, there were two resolutions passed of special interest to teachers. The teaching profession deeply appreciates this expression of interest and sup-

port of our schools and profession. So that National Council members will be acquainted with these two resolutions, they are reproduced below.

RESOLUTION NUMBER 211

Whereas, the vast majority of the teaching profession of the United States has actively supported, in many sections of the country, the American Legion Americanism program in schools, as for example, the oratorical essay school medal awards, junior baseball contests, etc.; and

Whereas, the various teacher organizations such as the National Education Association and its various state affiliates have supported the American Legion in its fight against subversive groups; now

Therefore Be It Resolved, by the American Legion in convention assembled in New York, August 25-28, 1952, that we do hereby thank the members of the American teaching profession, their organizations, the National Education Association, and its various state affiliates, for their great assistance rendered to the Americanism program of the American Legion; and

Be It Further Resolved, that the various departments circulate this resolution among the public, private and parochial school groups for attention of the teaching profession.

RESOLUTION NUMBER 212

Whereas, the strength of our nation depends on an enlightened citizenry; and

Whereas, the public schools developed by the initiative, sacrifice, energy, vision and constant vigilance of local communities in every state of the nation have succeeded in developing a level of education unequalled by any other nation; and

Whereas, thousands of teachers have dedicated themselves to the cause of the education of the youth of all people and have served our nation in developing the American way of life which has safe-guarded the liberties provided in our Constitution; and

Whereas, in recent years insidious forces both communist and reactionary, have sought to create in the minds of parents, taxpayers, and citizens, general doubt and confusion concerning the integrity and effectiveness of our public schools by raising false issues and by sinister criticism and attacks upon teachers, administrators, and local boards of education; and

Whereas, the ultimate objective of these attacks is the deterioration of our schools and

the subversion of our American way of life;

Therefore Be It Resolved by the American Legion in convention assembled in New York, August 25-28, 1952, as follows:

1. That the American Legion take pride in the achievement of our public schools and recognize their importance and effective work in building and safeguarding the ideals of American citizens.

2. That we condemn the authors of subversive attacks upon the public schools, whether they be dissident individuals or groups in the local communities, or inspired by evil forces, financed, directed and operated by agents of subversion against our nation and against the American way of life.

3. That we call upon every member of the American Legion to be on the alert in his community to know the schools and to recognize these attacks when they occur, and to stand ready to support and defend them against all enemies.

John Hay Fellows

Seven teachers of social studies in public high schools were among the twenty winners of Fellowships announced May 27 by the John Hay Whitney Foundation of New York City. These award winners will receive stipends averaging \$5,500 each and will be known as John Hay Fellows. Five of the social studies teachers will attend Yale University and the other two Columbia University. The award recipients were selected on the basis of the individual prospectus showing the manner in which university study for one year would help improve teaching in his particular school upon his return to his post.

The names of the seven teachers of social studies are: Margaret Clayton Chairman of the Department of Social Studies at Valley High School, Valley Station, Kentucky; Minerva H. Johnson, Pearl High School, Nashville, Tennessee; Elizabeth Lott, High School, Douglas, Georgia; Bessie Ozarin, Grover Cleveland High School, Buffalo, New York; Isidore Starr, Brooklyn Technical High School, New York; Paul Wagley, Clover Park Junior-Senior High School, Tacoma, Washington.

Illinois Council

The Illinois Council for the Social Studies held its Annual Spring Meeting in Aurora, April 18-19. James K. Felts, President of ICSS, presided at the dinner meeting, and Julian C. Aldrich, President of the NCSS addressed the group. At the following morning meeting, Mrs. G. W.

Nethercut of Oak Park spoke on problems of human relations. This was followed by four sectional meetings.

Section I, "Understanding Present Economic and Political Adjustments in the United States" under the leadership of Avis Moore, Downer's Grove. At Section II, Clyde Kohn, Northwestern University, discussed "Improving Curriculum and Techniques in the Teaching of Social Studies at Different Levels of Learning." Clyde Hewitt, Aurora College, discussed "Clarifying the International Situation and the United Nations Organizations" for Section III. At Section IV Earl Johnson, University of Chicago, spoke on "Sustaining Values in the Teaching of Social Studies."

At the Luncheon Meeting Henrietta Fernitz, Coordinator of the Sectional Meetings, had brief reports from each of the four sections. Harold Lasswell, Yale University, gave the final address.

M.M.H.

Georgia

The Georgia Council for the Social Studies met in Athens on September 20 with Lucile Hodges of Claxton, president, presiding. One of the chief projects of the meeting was to consider the preparation of a constitution to improve the functioning of the Council. A resolution was passed urging attention and support for a publishing house in Georgia that would draw on local resources. Spencer King, Mercer University, spoke on the untouched source material in Georgia for social studies teaching, writing, and research. Mary Ford, Columbus, described the work of the Columbia University-Columbus workshop on the problem approach to getting out the citizen vote. Representatives were present from the seven Georgia districts. G.H.S.

Middle States

The Middle States Council for the Social Studies met jointly with the New Jersey Council for the Social Studies in Atlantic City on November 8. Richard Sanger U. S. Department of State, spoke on "Developments in the Middle East." Bessie Cushman, President NJCSS, presided.

The Fiftieth Anniversary meeting of the Middle States Council will be held at the Henry Hudson Hotel, New York City, April 17-18, 1953. The theme for this meeting will be "Citizenship 1903-1953-2003."

E.M.B.

Central Missouri

The Central Missouri District Council for the

Social Studies met at Central Missouri State College on October 10. R. F. Wood presided at the business meeting and then the group listened to Dorothy Fuldheim of Cleveland, Ohio, speak on "A Thousand Years of Russian History." Mr. Thompson of the Missouri State Chamber of Commerce spoke to the group on the Missouri Tour, a geographical, historical and educational project being planned for the Central Missouri State College program next summer. V.P.

Indiana

The Spring Meeting of the Indiana Council for the Social Studies was held at Ball State Teachers College on March 29. At the morning session Dorothy McClure Fraser served as moderator on the topic "Developing a firm foundation of understanding, skills, and attitudes in social studies." Mrs. Ruth Carmichael spoke on "Studying the immediate environment in kindergarten, first and second grades"; "Our Community, our state and other regions in third and fourth grades" was the topic of Mrs. Norma Johnson; Mrs. Daphne Post spoke on "History, civics and geography (United States and her neighbors) in fifth and sixth grades"; and Mr. John Marshall dealt with "Expanding knowledge of the United States and the World in Junior High School"; Miss Esther Bartlett discussed "World History in Senior High School," and "United States history and government in Senior High School" was treated by Byron K. Rose. The final topic was "Recent and possible future developments in the social studies program for Indiana Schools" discussed by Dr. I. O. Foster, Indiana University and State Director of Curriculum Development. The second morning session featured a discussion of "The Teaching of Contemporary Affairs" by William Shorrock.

The Luncheon meeting featured Dorothy McClure Fraser on the subject "Are We Teaching for International Understanding?" The session closed with a business meeting.

W.L.G.

All social studies teachers and social studies organizations are invited to send in material for these columns. Send in notes on the activities of your school organization and other items of general interest to social studies teachers. Mail your material as early as possible to Merrill F. Hartsorn, Executive Secretary, National Council for the Social Studies, 1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C. Contributors to this issue: Mrs. Minnie Hatten, George Slappey, Edwin M. Barton, Mrs. Vivian Pharr, W. L. Gruenewald.

Pamphlets and Government Publications

Manson Van B. Jennings

Citizenship Education

The Civic Education Project, founded in 1948 and directed by Professors John J. Mahoney and Henry W. Holmes formerly of Boston and Harvard Universities respectively, has projected a publications program of approximately 25 pamphlets in its Living Democracy Series, and in addition plans to produce several source books or readers in the problems-of-democracy area. Thus far, 10 pamphlets of the Living Democracy Series have been completed and may be purchased for 60 cents each (\$1.60 in cloth binding) by ordering them from the Civic Education Foundation, Publication Office, 11 West 42nd Street, New York 36. Schools and libraries are granted a 25 percent discount on orders of 10 or more in paper binding, and with each class order of 10 or more copies of the same title, a free copy of *Hints and Helps* will be sent.

These pamphlets range in length from 40 to 78 pages (most of them being about 50 pages), and are printed on large double-column pages. A considerable amount of very effective human-interest material along with numerous cartoon-type drawings has been included to make these pamphlets interesting to teen-aged youngsters. The titles thus far released are:

The Isms—and You, dealing with the theory and practice of Communism and Facism, and what must be done to protect democracy from being undermined by such isms.

They Made A Nation, the story of the Constitutional Convention of 1787 and its meaning for us today.

It Has Been Done, dealing primarily with the story of actual political reform in four American towns and cities.

Bread and Butter Plus, a group of stories from a variety of schools in which students have organized civic activities going well "beyond the line of duty."

Who Says So? How a high school class studied the sources and instrumentalities of public opinion and developed a public-opinion project of its own; emphasis is placed on the individual's responsibility in the formation of public opinion.

Why Don't They Think! A fictional treatment on the need for thinking before taking action.

And Crown Thy Good, an explanation and discussion of the 1946 report of the President's Committee on Civil Rights.

Work Without Strife, on the process of collective bargaining and the need for labor and management to work out their problems together.

Capitalism—Way of Freedom, an analysis of the

strengths and weaknesses of capitalistic enterprise and why the American brand of capitalism is worth fighting for as well as our political system.

These Americans, biographical accounts in story-telling form of outstanding Americans of divergent ancestries and differing faiths.

The Citizenship Education Project at Teachers College, Columbia University (525 West 120th St., New York 27) has published two pamphlets which should have continuing value for high school students even though they were written for initial use prior to last month's election. *Political Parties and Presidential Nominations* (24 p.) and *Political Parties and Presidential Elections* (33 p.) deal with the nominating and election process, paying particular attention to the role of political parties. The material is presented in a scholarly but readable manner, and brings together considerable information, particularly with regard to practices in individual states, that is otherwise scattered in numerous sources. Each pamphlet sells for 30 cents (30 copies for \$5.) and may be ordered directly from the Teachers College Citizenship Education Project.

U. S. Department of State

Although the publications of the Department of State are not noted for their inspired writing, they nevertheless contain a tremendous amount of useful information—and they are inexpensive. Single copies of free material can sometimes be obtained directly from the State Department; otherwise, publications must be purchased from the Superintendent of Documents, United States Government Printing Office, Washington 25.

Recently released is *United States Participation in the United Nations*, a report by the President to the Congress for the year 1951 (Department of State Publication 4583, International Organization and Conference Series III, 80. 324 p. 65 cents). This report begins with a summary of the work of the UN during the year, and then presents a detailed account of the United States' role in the UN, concluding with an appendix which includes a brief description of the United Nations system and a complete list of all our representatives on the various UN bodies.

Probably more useful to teachers than to high school students is *Progress Toward Completion*

of *Human Rights Covenants* by James Simsarian (Department of State Publication 4669. International Organization and Conference Series III, 85. 11 p. 10 cents). This article, reprinted from the State Department *Bulletin* of July 7, 1952, summarizes the work of the Commission on Human Rights at its April-June, 1952, session, and presents in full the Draft Covenant on Civil and Political Rights as well as the Draft Covenant on Economic, Social and Cultural Rights, as revised up to June, 1952.

Teaching About the United Nations in the Schools and Colleges of the United States in 1950 and 1951 (Department of State Publication 4649. International Organization and Conference Series III, 83. 29 p. 10 cents) is a report prepared for the U. S. National Commission for UNESCO by the U. S. Office of Education. It deals primarily with what the schools and colleges are doing, but gives some attention to activities at the pre-kindergarten and adult levels. Consideration is also given to teacher training programs both at the pre-service and in-service stages of professional preparation.

Fundamental to developing an undertaking of American foreign policy is a consideration of the *North Atlantic Treaty Organization—Its Development and Significance* (Department of State Publication 4630. General Foreign Policy Series 75. 50 p. 20 cents). This illustrated pamphlet is well organized, readable, and definitely suitable for secondary-school use. It begins with a summary of the origins of the North Atlantic Treaty; then presents the nature, purposes, organization, accomplishments and problems of NATO; and concludes with a two-part appendix which includes a series of questions and answers on NATO and the text of the North Atlantic Treaty.

More on NATO

In the *Armed Road to Peace: An Analysis of NATO* (Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th St., New York 16: No. 92 of the Headline Series. 62 p. 1952. 35 cents), Blair Bolles presents facts and figures on the development and accomplishments of NATO. He concludes that while the Soviet area has greater power "in being," the West has the greater power potential, a power that can be realized only in the distant future and only if the current drive for Western military power continues. At the end of the pamphlet is a six-page article by Francis O. Wilcox on "Bipartisanship and the North Atlantic Treaty." A mature and scholarly analysis of the prob-

lems and policies of the North Atlantic Treaty Organization as seen from the British point of view is presented in a report by a study group of the Royal Institute of International Affairs, *Atlantic Alliance: NATO's Role in the Free World* (Royal Institute of International Affairs, 542 Fifth Avenue, New York 36: 172 p. 1952. \$1.25). The report is based on first-hand investigation and was completed at the time General Eisenhower left SHAPE.

More on the UN

The Department of Public Information of the United Nations publishes numerous pamphlets, books and periodicals on the work and accomplishments of the UN and its specialized agencies. These may be purchased from the International Documents Service, Columbia University Press, 2960 Broadway, New York 27, which is an official distribution agent for these materials in the United States.

Typical of the Department of Public Information pamphlets and highly effective for teaching purposes are: *Basic Facts About the United Nations* (45 p. 7th ed., 1952. 15 cents) which presents a pictorial cross section of the work of the UN up to the end of 1951; and *The United Nations in Pictures* (48 p. 1952. 50 cents) which presents the photographic highlights of the first six years of the UN as reported in the *United Nations Bulletin*. For further information on the publications of the UN's Department of Public Information, address your inquiries to the International Documents Service of the Columbia University Press.

The United Nations At Work: Basic Documents (World Peace Foundation, 40 Mt. Vernon Street, Boston 8: 147 p. 40 cents) includes the Charter of the UN, the Provisional Rules of Procedure of the Security Council, and 15 other documents relating to the functioning of the UN, making this pamphlet a valuable reference for students and teachers.

World Affairs

Since the March issue when the University of Chicago Round Table pamphlets were last cited in this column, there have been several broadcasts of particular interest to students and teachers of world affairs:

How to Deal with Genuine Revolution (May 4, 1952)
How Can A Democracy Control Its Foreign Policy (May 25, 1952)

The Transformation of British and American Capitalism (June 1, 1952)

Academic Freedom in America and Britain (June 22, 1952)

An Arab's View of Point IV (August 10, 1952)

How Can We Best Help Underdeveloped Areas? (August 17, 1952)

Each pamphlet can be purchased from the University of Chicago, Chicago 37, for 10 cents, or a yearly subscription of 52 issues can be purchased for \$3.

In *How to Make Friends for the U. S.* (Foreign Policy Association, 22 East 38th St., New York 16: No. 93 of the Headline Series. 63 p. 1952. 35 cents) Vera Micheles Dean analyzes what Americans can do to improve the picture our friends and enemies have of us.

Toward Security Through Disarmament (American Friends Service Committee, 20 S. 12th St., Philadelphia 7: 48 p. 1952. 25 cents) was written in a spirit of "creative neutrality, endeavoring thereby to build bridges of understanding between nations as a means of settling disputes in mutual good faith." This pamphlet presents a program for disarmament based on "an abiding conviction that God would have us find a way to remove war and the tools of war from the face of the earth." Their proposals include not only the reduction of armaments and the repudiation of weapons of mass destruction but also a necessary program of inspection and international control.

The new *B.I.S. Publications* replaces the former *B.I.S. Catalog of Selected Publications* and will be sent to you upon request by writing the British Information Services, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. This pamphlet describes the services of the B.I.S., and lists several free booklets which should prove useful to secondary-school students. The B.I.S. will also send you upon request its *Catalog of Films from Britain* and its *Catalog of B.I.S. Film Strips*.

The free *Catalogue of Pan American Union Publications* (Pan American Union, Washington 6) lists numerous titles appealing to various ages from elementary to adult levels and dealing with a wide variety of topics having direct and indirect implications for the social studies. Prices on each booklet range from 5 cents to \$5, with most items costing \$1 or less. A film catalogue will also be sent upon request.

Domestic Affairs

In addition to the *World Almanac* and the *Statistical Abstract of the United States*, the *United States Government Organization Manual, 1952-1953* (U. S. Government Printing Office,

Washington 25: 742 p. 1952. \$1.) has been found by many teachers of contemporary affairs to be an almost indispensable reference work. The latest edition has been revised to July 1, 1952, and presents a brief history and description of the organization of the various official and quasi-official agencies of the legislative, executive and judicial branches of the federal government and of selected international organizations.

In response to the disastrous crashes of military and commercial aircraft in densely populated urban areas, the President appointed an Airport Commission headed by "Jimmy" Doolittle to investigate the problem of airports located within city areas. The illustrated report of the President's Airport Commission, *The Airport and Its Neighbors* (U. S. Government Printing Office, Washington 25: 116 p. 1952. 70 cents), presents the Commission's findings and recommendations.

Jerry Voohis, Executive Secretary of the Co-operative League of the U. S. A., makes an excellent survey of the development of cooperatives in the United States in *The Cooperatives Look Ahead* (Public Affairs Committee, 22 East 38th St., New York 15: Public Affairs Pamphlet No. 32. 32 p. 1952. 25 cents). He also gives attention to the principles of the cooperative movement and to some of the controversial issues and other problems affecting the future growth of cooperatives.

The Special Services Department of the National Association of Manufacturers, 14 West 49th St., New York 20, will send upon request its *1952-1953 Catalog of Discussion Aids*, listing nearly 80 pamphlets, posters, motion pictures and other materials. Most printed materials will be sent in classroom quantities without charge, while films are lent free of charge for single showings.

The July, 1952, issue of the *Annals* of the American Academy of Political and Social Science is entitled, *The National Interest—Alone or With Others?* (The Academy of Political and Social Science, 3817 Spruce St., Philadelphia 4: 202 p. \$2. for non members). In addition to the usual book-review section of some 80 pages, this volume presents articles by 20 contributors, nearly half of whom are from countries other than the United States. These articles examine the nature of our own national interest as applied to the Atlantic Community and to tension points in Europe and the Middle East, providing basic information and differing points of view with regard to the question of whether our foreign policy should go it alone or with others.

Sight and Sound in Social Studies

William H. Hartley

Film of the Month

Rules and Laws. 15 minutes; black-and-white; purchase price, \$60; rental for one to three days, \$3. Encyclopaedia Britannica Films, Inc. Wilmette, Ill.

It is never too early to start the young citizen's education in the function of rules and laws in their lives. This motion picture was produced for social studies classes in the middle grades. It points out that laws must adapt themselves to changing conditions, and they must be observed for the benefit of all. As people increase in their understanding of the law, their power as citizens will become more effective.

The film opens with three children playing with a model electric train. Rose tries to make the train go without a track; older brother points out that it is necessary to keep on the track, but Tom allows the train to run into a dead end. Father uses this situation to point out that the track symbolizes the laws that channel our engines to a common good. Little Rose has yet to channel her engine toward her goals. When the children are playing a game in the yard, Rose cannot agree to rules which are adaptable to local situations. Father in a kindly and undogmatic way helps the children to work out their own rules, but he is a helpful guide and counselor. When one member of the group cheats, he helps the group to see how all may be harmed by the activities of one member.

Finally the film illustrates ways in which laws serve the needs of entire communities and the nation. The viewers see rules and laws working in situations with which they are familiar. The transfer to community rules is effectively made. Father makes the point that if laws are to be made to serve man and to change with different situations, then each individual must have sufficient knowledge and understanding of the problems which the community faces.

This film is characteristic of a number of films dealing with the child's view of community problems which have been produced in recent years. Most of these films never quite "come off" and come to the point. This one does. It should

be effective in modifying behavior or at least influencing such changes in the lives of young people.

Recent 16-mm. Sound Films

British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

The British Soldier—Man of the World. 10 minutes; rental, \$1.50. This film is designed to give a clear picture of the scope of the British Army's world-wide activities with emphasis on the part they are playing in the present fight against communism in the Far East.

The King's Life Guard. 9 minutes; rental, \$1.50. Shows in detail the changing of the Guards, the barracks, and how the troops are trained.

The King's Musick. 20 minutes; rental, \$2.50. A tour of the Royal Military School of Music at Kneller Hall, showing various methods of training in conducting and in playing of many instruments.

The People's Land. 11 minutes; rental, \$2.50. The work of an organization called the National Trust, dedicated to the preservation of England's national beauty and noble surroundings.

Sudan Dispute. 20 minutes; rental, \$2.50. This film examines the problems facing Britain as she favors independence for the Sudanese people. Egypt opposes this move and has brought the issue before the United Nations. Both the British and Egyptian viewpoints are presented.

Encyclopaedia Britannica Films Inc., Wilmette, Illinois.

Arteries of New York City. 10 minutes; sale, \$50; rental, \$2.50 for 3 days. Portrays the network of transportation arteries which carry men and goods daily to and from our country's largest metropolitan area.

India. 17 minutes; sale, \$70; rental, \$3.50 for 3 days. Shows an ancient land as it breaks with its past, and presents a comprehensive picture of the people and the resources of the land.

Italy—Land of Contrast. 17 minutes; color; sale, \$140; rental, \$5.50 for 3 days. Contrasts the beauty, wealth and poverty of Italy. The rich fertile plains of the north and the mountain starved lands of the south are pictured.

Library Story. 15 minutes; color; sale, \$120; rental, \$4.75 for 3 days. Presents the vital place of the library in school and community life.

Selected Negro Work Songs. 10 minutes; sale, \$50; rental, \$2.50 for 3 days. "Dis Ol' Hammer," "Let the Church Roll On."

Selected Songs of James A. Bland. 10 minutes; sale, \$50; rental, \$2.50 for 3 days. "Carry Me Back to Old Virginny," and "Oh, Dem Golden Slippers."

Selected Songs of Stephen Foster. 10 minutes; sale, \$50; rental, \$2.50 for 3 days. Includes "My Old Kentucky Home," and "Oh Susanna."

Institute of Visual Training, 40 East 49th St., New York 17.

Flight Into Time. 27 minutes; color; free loan. A visit to Portugal, Spain, Italy, Greece, the Holy Land, Egypt.

Overseas Run. 27 minutes; color; free loan. Shows a T.W.A. flight across the Atlantic. Includes scenes of Newfoundland, France, England, Italy and Spain.

McGraw-Hill Book Co., 330 West 42nd St., New York, 36.

British Factory Foreman. 13 minutes; color; sale, \$120. The life and work of a foreman in an automobile factory in Luton.

British Mill Owner. 13 minutes; color; sale, \$120. The story of a manager of a cotton mill near Manchester, showing how changes in recent years have affected the lives of the upper-class British family.

English Farm Family. 13 minutes; color; sale, \$120. Against the background of an old manor house and a countryside little changed since Elizabethan days, new farm leaders are seen making many changes.

Great Lakes. 18 minutes; sale, \$80. Almost every phase of activity on the Great Lakes is pictured.

Lone Star Roundup. 15 minutes; sale, \$80. A visit to Flat Top Ranch, located in Bosque Country, in the great central plains of Texas. Shows how ranching has changed and become big business, but still relies on the man on horseback.

Railroad Special Agent. 15 minutes; sale, \$80. The work of the railroad's police.

Scottish Miner. 13 minutes; color; sale, \$120. The everyday pattern of one miner's life emphasizes the difficult nature of his occupation.

Transportation in the United States. 17 minutes; sale, \$80. The work that goes into operating and maintaining our railroads. A "March of Time" film.

Modern Talking Pictures Service, Inc. 45 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

This Is Life. 25 minutes; color; free loan. Traces the activities of the meat packing industry from ranch to plant to retailer.

Filmstrips

Australian News and Information Bureau, 636 Fifth Ave., New York.

Australia, Country With a Future. 74 frames; sale, \$1.65. Gives a general view of Australia and its industries.

Eye Gate House, Inc., 2716 Forty-First Ave., Long Island City, New York.

Children Near and Far. A series of nine full-color filmstrips. Price, \$25 per set. Titles are: "Wambo and Tawa of the Hot Lands," "Nils and Greta of Switzerland," "Pieter and Trina of Holland," "Togo and Yuki of Japan," "Nannook and Akawa of the Cold Land," "Ole and Olga of Norway," "Lung-Wu and Che-Tsoo of China," "Ahmen and Adah of the Desert Land," and "Pedro and Maria of Mexico."

The Filmstrip House 25 Broad St., New York 4.

History of American Art. Series of 12 filmstrips; sale per set \$33; each \$3. Titles are: "Architecture and Crafts in Colonial America," "Painting in Colonial America," "Republican Architecture and Sculpture, 1790-1830,"

"Republican Painting," "Architecture and Sculpture in the Middle Years, 1830-1870," "Painting in the Middle Years," "Architecture and Sculpture in the Gilded Age, 1870-1900," "Painting in the Gilded Age," "Architecture and Painting: The Pioneers of Modernism, 1900-1920," "Painting and Sculpture in the Nineteen-Twenties," "Architecture and Sculpture Since 1930," "Painting Since 1930."

The History of Western Art. Series of six filmstrips; sale, \$15. Titles are: "Ancient Art," "From Constantine to about 1400," "From About 1400 to About 1800," "From About 1800 to The Present," "General Art Appreciation."

Your United Nations. Series of eight filmstrips; sale, \$25. Titles are: "Working Together for Peace," "Design for World Living," "Pattern for World Prosperity," "Better World Neighbors," "World of Law and Order," "Dealing With Russia," "Can We Prevent War?" "A Positive Program for Peace."

Heritage Filmstrips, Inc., 89-11 63rd Drive, Rego Park 74, New York.

Background of our Freedom Series. 9 filmstrips; sale, \$3.50 each; two, \$7; three, \$10; four, \$12.50; five, \$15; six, \$17.50. The three most recent additions to the series are "Passing a Bill in Congress," "Popular Sovereignty—U.S.A.," "Growth of Women's Rights—U.S.A." Other titles are "The Triumph of Parliament," "Causes of the French Revolution," "The French Revolution," "Causes of the American Revolution," "The American Revolution," "The Anti-Slavery Crusade."

Life Filmstrips, 9 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20.

Life Filmstrips. A monthly series of 8 black-and-white filmstrips; sale, \$15 for the entire series; also available singly at \$2.50 each. Titles now include "South Africa," "Korea," "The Navajos," "Port of New York," "The New Indonesia," "Israel," "Yugoslavia," "Iran."

Museum Extension Service, 10 East 43rd St., New York 17.

Field Trip Films. A monthly filmstrip visit to a famous historic shrine. Yearly fee, \$20; or strips may be purchased singly at \$6 each. All are in color. Forthcoming titles are: "Salem, Hub of Colonial Commerce and Culture," "Writing and Printing in America," "The Buffalo and Westward Expansion," "Land of the Free—Agriculture in America," "George Washington's Mount Vernon," "Golden Gate to the West," "River Boats and the Building of America," "American Literature—New England."

Ohio State University, Teaching Aids Laboratory, 13 Page Hall, Columbus 10, Ohio.

Simplified Filmstrip Production. 32 frames; color; sale, \$2.50. Outlines a method by which any amateur photographer can produce filmstrips locally.

Making Teaching Effective. 40 frames; sale, \$2.25. Shows the curriculum atmosphere in which audio-visual materials are most effective.

Popular Science Publishing Co. 353 Fourth Ave., New York 10.

Filmstrip-of-the-Month Club for Elementary Grades. 10 monthly filmstrips in full color, plus one bonus strip. The regular price on color strips such as these is \$6; Subscription to the year's service is \$30 and saves 50

percent. Each strip has an accompanying teacher's guide. Titles to date are: "Our President," "Rediscovering America," "The Meaning of Thanksgiving," "Christmas Around the World."

Silver Burdett Company, 45 East 17th St., New York 3.

Then and Now in the United States. A series of 18 social studies filmstrips that give dramatic reality to the story of America. Price, per strip, \$7.50; 6 or more strips, \$6 each. Last year it was our privilege to review the first 12 strips in this series. We found them to be excellent. Now the last 6 strips have come to our attention. They maintain the same high standards of historical accuracy, artistic authenticity, with meticulous attention to detail and logical construction that makes for teachability that was true of the first strips issued. The titles in this last group are: "Then and Now in the Rocky Mountains," "Then and Now in the Great Plains," "Then and Now in California," "Then and Now in the Pacific Northwest," "Then and Now in the Southwest," "Then and Now Between the Western Mountains." Written by Clarence W. Sorenson, the filmstrips show how various parts of our country developed, how men made use of the resources which they found, and the present state of the various regions. Geography and history are fused together in such a way as to give a complete picture of the section of the country being studied.

Turkish Information Office, 444 East 52nd St., New York 22, New York.

Modern Turkey. A filmstrip available on a free loan basis.

Audio-Visual Guides

The H. W. Wilson Co. (950 University Ave., New York 52) has just issued the 1952 Annual Cumulation volume of the *Educational Film Guide*. This is the standard guide to films for classroom use. Each two years a complete volume of properly indexed films is issued. This is supplemented by quarterly issues in November, February, and May. The total charge for this service is \$5. Any school which uses films in its instructional program should know about, subscribe to, and use the *Educational Film Guide*.

Several hundred films and filmstrips dealing with economic problems and issues are listed in the *Guide to Films in Economic Education* issued by the Department of Audio-Visual Instruction, National Education Association (1201 Sixteenth St., N. W., Washington 6, D. C.). Produced in cooperation with the Joint Council on Economic Education this is not just another list of films. It is a critical guide which reflects the thinking of a group of educators who reviewed these films and evaluated them against a carefully constructed set of criteria. Each film is classified according to title and subject. A brief synopsis of the film's content is given and the committee's recommendation concerning grade

level usefulness and place in the curriculum is stated. These recommendations are frank and honest and should serve as useful guides to teachers searching for useful films. The *Guides* cost \$1.00 per copy.

For a number of years this department has reviewed the *Educators Guide to Free Films*, published by the Educators Progress Service, Randolph, Wisconsin. Each year this *Guide* has grown in size and usefulness. The twelfth annual edition published this year is truly bigger and better than ever. It lists 2,332 titles of films, 538 of which were not listed in the previous edition. It tells one where to obtain these films, the conditions of the loan, and the content of each film. The index and cross references make the *Guide* easy to use. It sells for \$6.00 per copy.

Also issued by the Educators Program Service (Randolph, Wisconsin), is an *Elementary Teachers Guide to Free Curriculum Materials*. It is really a professional cyclopedic service on free learning aids. Items listed have been selected on the basis of (1) educational appropriateness, (2) timeliness, (3) style and usability, and (4) freedom from undesirable features. Here is a rich storehouse of materials which are free for the asking. Best of all it is up-to-date, thorough, and sufficiently informative so that one knows exactly what he is writing for. This *Guide* sells for \$4.50 per copy.

For a complete list of films for sale by U. S. governmental agencies, write to United World Films, 1445 Parlo Ave., New York 29.

Picture Sets

A number of sets of large (12 x 15 inch) glossy photographic reproductions illustrating subjects of historic and current interest are offered for sale by the British Information Service, 30 Rockefeller Plaza, New York 20. Each set consists of about eleven mounted panels and each reproduction is accompanied by an informative caption. The pictures cost \$1.00 per set. Among the subjects offered are, "Britain 1900-1950," "Britain and Her Colonies" (color), "British Museum," "London—City of Westminster," "Colonial Economic Development," "Introducing Pacific Islands."

Seven "Pictorial Histories" have been released by the C. S. Hammond Co., Inc., 521 Fifth Ave., New York 17. The titles are *Britain's Story Told in Pictures*, *The Story of Prehistoric and Roman Britain Told in Pictures*, *The Story of Saxon and Norman Britain Told in Pictures*, *The Story of Medieval Britain Told in Pictures*, *The Story*

of *Tudor and Stuart Britain Told in Pictures*, *The Story of Hanoverian and Modern Britain Told in Pictures*, *Our Empire's Story Told in Pictures*. Each book contains 64 pages, 6 by 8½ inches in size, and there are 450 to 650 illustrations in each book. The "Pictorial Histories" sell for 35 cents each.

Records

The American Recording Society (100 Avenue of the Americas, New York 13) has instituted a program designed to record and release each month a new full-frequency recording of American music, on long playing records. The first offering of the Society is Edward Mac Dowell's "Indian Suite." The monthly record fee is \$4.95 for 12-inch records, and \$4.35 for 10-inch records. For each two records purchased, an additional one is sent free.

We hope that by now you have had an opportunity to hear at least some of the Enrichment Records issued toward the end of the last school year. They have been most enthusiastically received. The titles of the first four volumes were *Voyages of Christopher Columbus*, *Landing of the Pilgrims*, *California Gold Rush*, and *Riding the Pony Express*. Now four additional volumes have been released. In *Paul Revere and The Minute Men*, adapted from Dorothy Canfield Fisher's book of the same title, we hear Revere's father instill in him a love of freedom. The record then takes us to a meeting of the Sons of Liberty where the Boston Tea Party is planned. Finally the record dramatizes the famous ride. The second volume tells the story of *Our Independence and the Constitution*. This dramatic presentation of the framing of two famous documents is replete with stirring speeches and the fervor of the times. *Building the First Transcontinental Railroad* is the title of the third album. It follows the building of the Central Pacific and the Union Pacific from the initial planning to the driving of the Golden Spike. The last album in this new series is the story of *The Wright Brothers, Pioneers of American Aviation*. Through this presentation we live again the stirring days that ushered in the air age. All of the albums are dramatic, contain background sound effects, music, work songs, and give an insight into the spirit of the times. In some respects these recordings are smoother, less boisterous than the first issues and should be well received by teachers of the social studies. In regular speed (78 rpm) cuttings, the albums sell for \$2.80 each. The long playing (33-1/3 rpm)

records sell for \$3.56 per volume. Teachers' guides, called "Leads to Listening," have been prepared by Helen McCracken Carpenter and they are very helpful.

Alport Educational Records, Inc. (271 Madison Ave., New York 16) offers two series of records by famous educators. Outstanding among them is one on "The Educative Process," with William Heard Kilpatrick, H. Paul Beal, John J. Brooks, Roma Gans, Ernest O. Melby, and Freeda T. Weid. Another interesting record in this series is "How We Like to Learn," a recording by Helen Parkhurst explaining why children resist instruction, what methods succeed with them, and how the personality of the teacher enters into their standards. These programs are recorded on 10 inch, doublefaced, 33-1/3 rpm discs and last about 28 minutes per program. Single records are \$5. each.

Maps and Atlases

The C. S. Hammond Co. (521 Fifth Ave., New York 17) has presented an *American History Wall Atlas*. The 20 pages of wall maps in this series are firmly held together with board covers, varnish protected and reinforced with metal for hanging from the wall. Each double-page spread of naturally related maps measures 43 by 39 inches. The pages are turned like a book. Printed in full color, the maps portray the growth of the United States from the voyages of discovery to the present day. The *Wall Atlas* sells for \$18.95.

If you teach the elementary grades or junior high school, you will want a copy of the Denoyer-Geppert Company (5235 Ravenswood Ave., Chicago 40) *Catalog 52-E for Primary Grades, Intermediate Grades, Junior High School*. This catalog emphasizes the importance of and the availability of simplified maps, globes, atlases, charts, models, pictures. An innovation of Denoyer-Geppert's which we have seen used and liked are the 17 by 11 inch full-color maps of the world and of the United States. These maps are printed on one side of good paper, with a plain white margin around the maps. They are good for pupil projects, bulletin boards and other uses where a small, but well-colored map is desired. Single maps in this series cost 20 cents; an envelope of 20 of one title sells for \$2.00; an envelope of 50 costs \$4.00. A sample set of 8 different maps in the series may be had postpaid for 50 cents. Ask for "Sample Set S R 8 X."

It's Free!

An 8-page illustrated unit on housing, suitable

for intermediate and upper grade classes is available free from the Educational Committee, National Association of Home Builders, 1028 Connecticut Ave., N.W., Washington, D.C. Included in the unit is a three act play, a outline of correlated activities, and a list of supplementary films and literature.

For a free state map which will serve as a sample of the maps found in the World Book Encyclopedia, write to Mr. William V. Miller, World Book, Dept. 1200, Box 3565, Chicago 54.

The Association of American Railroads, Washington 6, D.C. will send free a copy of an advertisement showing how "America and Its Railroads Have Grown Up Together." This reprint is illustrated with pictures of five different stages in the development of locomotives.

The Bituminous Coal Institute, 320 Southern Bldg., Washington 5, D.C. has just announced its list of free material for 1953. Included are booklets, films and special units. Copies of the list will be sent free upon request.

General Motors Corporation, Dept. of Public Relations, Room 11-1705, 3044 W. Grand Blvd., Detroit has recently issued a free 30-page illustrated booklet designed for elementary classes. It is called "The Automobile Story," and it traces the development of the automobile through the experiences of boys and girls of elementary school age.

Thirty free teaching aids, including booklets, charts, and bulletins are offered to schools by the Wheat Flour Institute, 309 W. Jackson Blvd., Chicago 5. Write for further information, but be sure to include the grade level in which you are interested.

The Educational Director, Cereal Institute, Inc., 135 S. La Salle St., Chicago 3, will send interested teachers a free calendar illustrated with classroom activities and a series of teaching units on nutrition.

Write to the Weber Costello Co., Chicago Heights, Illinois for a free copy of "How to Use the Chalkboard." It contains a number of helpful suggestions.

The Pan-America Coffee Bureau (Educational Department, 120 Wall St., New York 5) has a large colored wall chart (27 by 41 inches) showing trade between North and South America. Entitled "A Two-Way Street Between the Americas," it's worth having because it is a useful teaching tool.

A catalog of films of educational value in the field of electricity may be obtained by writing to the National Electrical Manufacturers Association,

155 East 44th St., New York 17. Most of the films listed are available on a free loan basis.

Educational Television

Educational Television Moves Forward is a brochure describing a full school day of ultra-high frequency classroom television programs in the public schools of Bloomfield and Montclair, New Jersey. Herein are described eight programs of lesson material planned by public school teachers for their own classes and broadcast to specially prepared television receivers in thirteen public schools. The programs were produced by the New Jersey State Teachers College at Montclair, scripts were written by the college students, and college students produce the programs, handled the sound and source work, and directed. The programs were produced with the cooperation of the Allen B. Dumont Laboratories. The programs and the educational problems included in their production is described in detail in the illustrated 39-page booklet. The lessons learned in this experiment are for reading, and the description of the project is well worth reading. Copies of *Educational Television Moves Forward* are \$1. From the Montclair State Teachers College, Montclair, New Jersey.

Helpful Articles

- Bolge, Grade R. "Flannel Maps—An Activity in Fifth Grade Geography." *The Journal of Geography* 51: 236-237; September 1952. How to make and use maps for flannel boards.
- Dale, Edgar. "TV—The New Frontier in Education." *The News Letter* 17: 1-4; May 1952. A review of the present use of TV in education with some evaluation of its potentialities.
- Ellis, Jack C. "Focusing on Citizenship." *Educational Screen* 31: 273-274, 292; September 1952. A description of the audio-visual program of the Citizenship Education Project.
- Frail, Robert Wayne. "Maps in the Primary Grades." *The Journal of Geography* 51: 238-244; September 1952. The steps in introducing primary map work.
- Frank, Josette. "Mass Media and Children: An International View." *Child Study* 29: 20-22; Fall 1952. A discussion of comic books, radio and movies and their effect upon children. Summarizes the conference held at the University of Milan.
- James, Linnie B. "The Mystery Country—A Lesson in the Reading of Graphs and Statistics." *The Journal of Geography* 51: 231-235; September 1952. How to motivate and teach graph reading skills.
- Leitch, Robert B. "Education in Depth." *Educational Screen* 31: 231-232, 247; Summer 1952. A wide variety of communication tools are used with seventh graders.
- Parish, Rose C. "We Study a Dairy Farm." *The Grade Teacher* 70: 38-39; October 1952. An excellent example of how real material helps to vitalize learning in a primary grade.

Book Reviews

EDUCATION AND AMERICAN CIVILIZATION. By George S. Counts. New York: Bureau of Publications, Teachers College, Columbia University, 1952, xiv + 491 p. \$3.75.

George S. Counts has strongly influenced the thinking of American teachers through his analysis of education in American life in such works as *The Social Foundations of Education* and *Education and the Promise of America*. In this volume, the third in a series sponsored by the Horace Mann-Lincoln Institute of School Experimentation, Dr. Counts gives a description of an American education which would support the forces of democracy in the struggle with "the challenge of totalitarianism in its several forms."

About half of the book is devoted to an overview of the American heritage, of the processes of change in American life, and of the origins and nature of American values. The treatment necessarily involves selection of certain elements for discussion and a rather generalized picture of the development of a society. The picture presented is, in the reviewer's opinion, a well-balanced and penetrating one. Particularly worthwhile is the discussion of values. Perhaps Dr. Counts might have given somewhat more attention to the changes in business and economic organization resulting from technological change and to the growth of such institutions as the school and the church.

The latter portion of the work consists of an eloquent description in general terms of the conception of education which will meet the needs of Americans today and in the future. The concluding chapters are concerned with the community and the teacher as forces in educational process. To this subject Dr. Counts brings a maturity of vision and a balance in judgment which makes his conception of education worth the serious attention of anyone concerned with the role of the school in American life. The reader may be bothered by the reiteration of basic arguments or may differ with the author's interpretation of such subjects as education and economic trends. But the main argument, that our education must be conceived in terms of the best values of individual freedom and social progress, is well developed.

Of particular merit, to this reader, is the call for a broadly based study of society as a part of

the preparation of teachers. Dr. Counts asks for a careful study of the nature of life in totalitarian countries, a welcome suggestion in a period marked by attempts to bar this study from the curriculum. In his discussion of organizations on pp. 439-442, the author gives a good example of the fine writing characteristic of the volume.

FREDERICK H. STUTZ

Cornell University

CALLING ALL CITIZENS. By Robert Rienow. Boston: Houghton Mifflin Company, 1952 Edition. 691 and xxxiii pages. \$3.12.

The author's purpose is to convince his junior high school audiences that American democracy is calling all citizens to make the most out of themselves, their inherited social institutions, and the entire human world. He uses a personalized and uncomplicated approach to the subject-matter as a way of impressing upon the minds and hearts of young readers his purpose. He provides stimulating activities throughout the eleven units of the book so that boys and girls can be systematically introduced to needed citizenship processes and behaviors. Budding adolescents will find this book a helpful personality advisor and civic guide.

A page by page comparison of the 1948 and the 1952 editions of *Calling All Citizens* indicates why and how a textbook in the social studies must often be re-made in order to be an accurate portrayal of social principles and changes. The written text of the 1952 edition evidently needed little modification except in sections involving materials related to the United Nations and the census statistics. The graphs, pictures, and tables, however, averaging about ten on each thirty-five pages, had to be brought up-to-date in about fifty per cent of the cases in order to show changes in such areas as governmental agencies and leaders, incomes and prices, and health and welfare practices. The large number of new references suggested for use by pupils is likewise very significant. Modern life is therefore reflected on the pages of *Calling All Citizens*.

Few users will find this book to be perfect. Its treatment of immigration, civil rights, and F.E.P.C. legislation, for instance, may be considered sketchy. A few lines altered in the text

and the addition of a single item to the index might not be thought to be sufficient treatment of communism in these days by many teachers. The absence of colored pictures could be construed, perhaps, as a momentary neglect of recent educational research. On the other hand, the brief re-write jobs on our armed forces, agricultural happenings, and the United Nations, for example, certainly merit praise. Moreover, the soundness of the general treatment of the author's purpose will turn out to be the best recommendation for *Calling All Citizens* to teachers throughout the country.

C. H. W. PULLEN

Supervisor, Citizenship and Social Studies
Pittsburgh, Pennsylvania

SOCIAL STUDIES IN THE SECONDARY SCHOOL. By Clarence D. Samford and Eugene Cottle. New York: McGraw-Hill Book Co. 1952. ix + 376 p. \$4.25.

Social Studies in the Secondary School was planned for the student teacher specializing in social studies, the experienced teacher seeking a program for in-service growth, and the supervisory staff searching for timely suggestions. This new book also considers current trends and deals with general education, core curriculum and education for life adjustment. Less attention is devoted to historical trends and to theory and more emphasis is placed on instructional aids than is usually found in books of this type. Most of the chapters contain a section treating methods of teaching the social studies in grades thirteen and fourteen. The chapters include lists of questions on the text and suggested activities, as well as lists of selected references on specific topics.

This book would be better if it singled out one group for an audience and did more to meet its specific needs. Cadet teachers, seasoned teachers, and highly trained supervisors cannot be adequately served by a single publication especially when the treatise attempts to cover everything from ninth grade through the junior college.

The usefulness of the book would also be enhanced for most teachers planning an instructional unit if the authors had specifically shown how to present the unit. They quote Farnum's generally accepted statement that, "Much of the success of unit instruction depends on the teacher's plan for introducing the unit. Initial activities orient pupils to the work ahead by developing their interests, by providing them with an

overview of the scope of the unit and by making them aware of the problems to be solved." (p. 228)

Surely here was a golden opportunity for the authors to aid teachers for they admitted, "At present social studies teachers have not had sufficient training in techniques of writing units and putting them into execution owing partly to the nature of the directed teaching in the teacher training institutions and to a lack of sufficient textbook and periodical materials. (p. 230)

Then too, few teachers would limit a unit to their statement, "The unit method of teaching in social studies was here defined as an outline of carefully selected subject matter which has been isolated because of its relationship to pupils needs and interest. (p. 243) Most teachers conceive of the unit in somewhat broader terms. However, this is a good book and serves a useful purpose.

STELLA B. KERN

Chicago Public Schools

THIS AGE OF GLOBAL STRIFE. By John B. Harrison. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott Co., 1952. ix + 470 p.

"This volume," the author says, "has a two-fold purpose. It is written, first of all . . . for college undergraduates. It is written, secondly, for the general reader. . . . This book undertakes to bring to the general reader in plain layman's language a sound historical account of the major world events of the immediate past which give meaning to most of today's world problem."

It is regrettable that the publishers have not done more to bring *This Age of Global Strife* to the attention of the public at large. It deserves a much wider audience than college undergraduates. In fact, its contents merit nation-wide scrutiny.

The comparative suddenness, the strangeness, and the complexity of the world-wide responsibilities which have been thrust on us, coupled with the barrages of conflicting opinions and propaganda have compounded the confusion in the minds of large sectors of our population. Where can the ordinary American turn for a trustworthy key to the maze of world problems that confront us? Well, he can start with what might be called Professor Harrison's "guide to the perplexed."

Does he want to discover "how this whole thing started"? The author reveals it to him in the

opening section, "The Coming of World War II." The first sentence will put him in the proper, thoughtful frame of mind. "The most disturbing event in world affairs during the last hundred years," it says, "has been the rise of Germany to dominance in Europe and the threat of her dominance over the rest of the world." In the chapters which follow, he will find an absorbing, detailed, and plainly-written account of how these two phenomena produced both world wars. He will also find in them all the evidence needed to prove the statement that "World Wars I and II are, in reality, two phases of the same war."

Thus, Mr. Harrison will enable the general reader to "look at the record" of these years from a commanding height and to see vividly the whole pattern of inexorable events which produced the two horrible world wars. What is more important, this record will induce extremely important lessons for today. The reader, it seems to me, will not be able to forget the haunting implications of Mr. Harrison's statement and proof that, "during the period 1919 to 1939, the influence of the United States as a force in world affairs had sunk from first place among all nations to zero." And if our fighting-men had read his exposition of the fearful consequences of our failure to stop Japan in Manchuria in the 1930's, would many of them have claimed that they did not know why President Truman sent them to fight in Korea?

The other parts of the book, "World War II: 1939-1945," and "The Cold War: 1945-," are equally well-written, and equally revealing, except for one serious fault. In the lucid account of the events of World War II the reader will be shown not only how much we had to pay for our mistakes of the period between both wars, but also how terribly near we came to losing everything in 1942. The last part will give the citizen a well-grounded knowledge of most of the foreign-policy issues facing us today. It would also have given him an excellent measuring rod for checking the claims of the candidates in the Presidential election with the facts which the author supplies. The concise review of the fundamental factors in the development of Russia and of China, for example, should throw considerable light on the statement of one of the leading candidates that "we lost at the conference table what our men have won on the battlefield."

The only serious flaw of the book is the impression of Soviet Russia which it conveys. The author seems to have leaned back to make sure

that his treatment of Stalin's regime was an objective one. Since he was not as easy on the democracies, perhaps because he expected more moral behavior from them, the net result, in parts at least, is an apologia for the regime of Stalin. This is true despite the fact that throughout all the other parts of the book, he shows himself to be a proudly patriotic American, a firm believer in democracy, and a staunch opponent of Communism. A statement on page 184 may perhaps provide a clue. "In a very real sense," it declares, "the threat of fascism has become more dangerous and much more subtle since the defeat of Germany and the noisy, attention-absorbing rise of Soviet Russian power, which though dangerous itself has tended to obscure the lingering menace of fascism." How a careful, clear-headed, and systematic historical scholar like Professor Harrison can utter such a sentiment as late as October 1951, is something I cannot understand.

Whatever the reason, the apparently favorable impression of Russia is there. I can cite only a few illustrations. Somehow his moral indignation grows rather sluggish in face of Russian actions. He utters no word of protest when Russia invades Poland in 1939; when Russia—in violation of her own direct pledge—absorbs the Baltic States in 1940; or when the Communists ruthlessly destroy the democratic government of Czechoslovakia. Secondly, he tends to omit facts unfavorable to Russia. Thus, he suggests the best possible reasons why the Russian army failed to come to the aid of Warsaw underground's uprising against the Nazis in July 1944. But he neglects to state that the uprising was started at the radioed request of the Russian High Command. Thirdly, he tends to repeat evidence favorable to Russia, as he does when stressing the claim that Russia "worked hard at collective security" while she was in the League of Nations. Would it be unfair to direct the author's attention to those parts of his book which tell how the Hitler-Stalin Pact dealt a mortal blow to collective security, and how hard Russia worked to maintain her unholy alliance with Hitler almost up to the very moment of the Nazi invasion of Russia?

Nevertheless, the rest of the book's contents remain excellent. It constitutes, I repeat, an indispensable guide to today's headlines and world problems. It can perform an invaluable service in making Americans world-conscious. For these reasons, "This Age of Global Strife" is a "must" for history teachers, college undergraduates, and the general reader.

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A few minor errors should be corrected in subsequent editions. The Italian government which Mussolini overthrew in 1922 was not a *republic* (p. 63). The German-Soviet Pact was not concluded in August 1940 (p. 123). And Under-Secretary Welles was not sent to Europe in the winter of 1940 to explore the possibility of ending the war (p. 131).

PHILIP LOCKER

Stuyvesant (N.Y.) High School

OUR GERMAN POLICY: PROPAGANDA AND CULTURE.

By Albert Norman. New York: Vantage Press, 1951. 85 p. \$2.50.

This book is the result of the author's Army experience while assigned to the historical section of the Information Division of Military Government. In this position he had the opportunity not only to note our German policy in regards to propaganda and cultural dissemination but also to observe the measures taken to control these media. Most of the book is devoted to the early part of the occupation while the author was serving in this assignment from the latter half of 1945 to the close of 1946. However, he has supplemented his own observations by reading rather

extensively other sources of information, some of them being dated as recently as 1948.

In covering this subject, the author devotes a brief chapter to each of the following topics: press, periodicals, radio, motion pictures, and the theater. In addition he includes two other short chapters, one on the approach to the German question and the other on the policies of our Military Government. In doing this, he gives the problems faced; the reasoning behind the policies made by Military Government, and the reasons for the extremely rapid transition of controls.

The author points out very clearly the inconsistency and the contradiction between our early "Morgenthau policy" and our objective of re-educating the Germans in accordance with democratic ways of thinking. He also discloses the sharp difference in the thinking of high level personnel connected with this agency as to the type of control that was to be employed by it over the Germans. In doing this the author makes a fine effort to be impartial by stating both sides of the question fairly.

For a quick and sketchy picture of our actions in Germany during this period, the book is recommended. It should refresh one's memory of the thinking of most Americans toward Germany

during and immediately after the war. It should also provoke one to consider the thought that perhaps we had made a mistake by concentrating too strongly upon demilitarization and deindustrialization while relegating education and cultural dissemination to minor positions.

LT. JOHN C. MATLON

THE CHATTANOOGA COUNTRY, 1540-1951, FROM TOMAHAWKS TO TVA. By Gilbert E. Govan and James W. Livingood. New York: E. P. Dutton & Company, Inc., 1952. 509 p. \$5.00.

Written against the back-drop of the development of the area including and adjacent to East Tennessee, authors Govan and Livingood have successfully unfolded a human-interest story of "The Chattanooga Country." Beginning with the story of the Indians, they chronologically treat a great number of adventurous episodes involved in the settling and developing of the region around Chattanooga. While the chief focus of the story is centered in this region, the authors were careful to weave their story into the setting of the country as a whole. Economic, social, political, and religious implications were treated with considerable candor.

The text covers the years between 1540 and 1951, but it is concerned mainly with the nineteenth century. Within this period Chattanooga had to cope with numerous disasters. One editor put it this way: "Chattanooga has more backbone for its size and advantages than any small village we know of. She has as many lives as a cat. As to killing her, even the floods have failed. You may knock the breath out of her—that's all. She will refill her lungs and draw a longer breath than ever. Her pluck has saved her and is likely to make her one of the most flourishing and prosperous cities in the South."

Signal Mountain becomes the pivotal point which serves to give fame to such recognized names as Sevier, Donelson, Blount, Ross, Bragg, and Key. The personalized accounts of historic figures and events adds much to the word pictures represented in this story. Chattanooga's strategic role in the Civil War is spelled out with careful portrayal and commentary in its defense, capture, and finally, life under the occupation forces of the Union Army.

Along with these troublesome times, the name of Adolph S. Ochs of *The New York Times* becomes an influential figure in the growth of the area. "Issues and Controversies" of the late nineteenth century gave way to the development of

"Modern Times" which include interesting straightforward accounts of the Scopes' Trial and Scottsboro Story. The chapter entitled "TVA" deals with the numerous problems involved in this project with a fair interpretation.

The Chattanooga Country is a regional history which provides careful documentation with an analysis which, no doubt, will remain as a genuine historical contribution to this region for some time to come. "Chattanooga Choo Choo" and "Shoe Shine Boy" may well have given publicity to Chattanooga, but *The Chattanooga Country* does much to present important issues and personalities during its fascinating development.

LAWRENCE O. HAABY

University of Tennessee
Knoxville

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